Scott a discount to Ports.

## ECLECTIC REVIEW

FOR MARCH, 1816.

Art. I. 1. Paris Revisited, in 1815, by way of Brussels: including a Walk over the Field of Battle at Waterloo. By John Scott, Author of a Visit to Paris in 1814, and Editor of the C'ampion. 8vo. pp. 405. Price 12s. Longman and Co. 1816.

2. Notes intended as Materials for a Memoir on the Affairs of the Protestants of the Department Du Gard. 8vo. pp. 56. Price

ls. 6d. Longman and Co. 1816.

THE traditional feud which has from a remote period existed between this country and France, and which difference of religion and conflicting political interests have conspired to inflame into a series of inveterate contests, has occasioned the feelings of Englishmen with regard to their continental neighbours, to border on a natural antipathy. Every thing glorious in our annals, according to the usual acceptation of the term glorious, is connected with the subjugation or the humiliation of France. Cressy, Poitiers, and Agincourt, are themes on which every Englishman exults to dwell. To beat the French, has been the glory of our navy, and our peerage has been swelled with the reward of such achievements. And if Spain has shared in the feelings of contempt and defiance which it has seemed a point of honour to our countrymen to cherish towards their enemies, that country has been so regarded, chiefly as a subordinate ally of our great rival, or on account of its relation to France in the detested dynasty of Bourbon. Those times, indeed, are gone by: Bourbon and the Pope are no longer our enemies. Our navy has other flags to encounter, than those of which the gloried to sweep the seas, and Nelson himself seems almost forgotten in Wellington. But still there seems to remain, pretty generally, a feeling towards the French nation, which it would take many years of peace to subdue to per-lect reconciliation; and this feeling is accompanied with a strong misgiving, that the policy which our rulers have adopted VOL V. N. S.

with regard to the affairs of France, will not admit of the

experiment.

But, were it possible to regard the French otherwise than as political allies or as political rivals, to regard them simply as our fellow-men, differing from ourselves principally in consequence of the character of their laws, their religion, and their government, the present state of France would present one of the most instructive lessons, one of the most interesting subjects, on which we could fix our attention. To what cause but our superior moral advantages, can we ascribe that difference of national character, on which we pride ourselves? or in what other light can we regard the vitiated and debased population of France, but as the victims of evils, the effects of which it is not enough that we deprecate: they must be traced up to their principles, and combated in their remote causes, if we would secure ourselves against their invasion.

Whatever obscurity may involve the springs of action-the fundamental motives of conduct, and how difficult soever it may be to develop the process by which the individual has attained a certain moral bias and intellectual character, the habits and characteristic manners of a nation are the result of a much slower and more obvious process, and little uncertainty attaches to the means of their formation. The fate of dynasties has, indeed, often been decided by some obstruction caused by perhaps a minute and apparently insignificant part of the machinery of go-But the moral character of a nation is not subjected to those accidental changes which determine the fate of rulers, or to the political aspect of things. Happily, it is not in the power of one human will, to inflict any but physical suffering upon a nation, except it be by the introduction of a system of evil, which implicates the nation that endures it, in the guilt of its own debasement.

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We take it for granted, as a thing agreed upon by men of all parties, by the more intelligent of the French themselves, that the moral condition of France, at this moment, is, whatever be the cause, exceedingly deplorable. Mr. Scott's present work, although not containing much that is essentially new, will be received as further evidence on this point. The want of public principle has been undeniably conspicuous throughout the large class of public functionaries, few of whose names appear in the "Dictionary of Weathercocks," without three or four marks, each indicating a change of political principle. A want of public confidence was the natural result of a series of such tragical revolutions, and private confidence also has been destroyed by the system of espionage in which Despotism finds its only security. If Paris may be considered as presenting

a specimen of the domestic morals of the nation, nothing can be more indicative of a state of utter deterioration. plete the melancholy picture, all accounts agree in representing the religious state of France as still worse than its civil state. Among the Catholic clergy, a few whom a love of their country and a sense of duty impelled to return, during the reign of Bonaparte, to the administration of pastoral duties, may be found sustaining their office with disinterested fidelity. But the greater proportion, it is to be feared, have failed to embrace the more beneficial part of their professed religion, and if not infidels, are wholly secular in their views and motives. On such men, the intolerant dogmas of the Romish Church, and the irritation produced by their supposed grievances, must necessarily have a highly aggravating tendency. Even among those who bear the Protestant name, although for the most part possessing that superior liberality of sentiment, and that love of liberty, which are among the glorious effects of the Protestant religion when consistently embraced, and which must ever render them obnoxious to a despot: even among the Protestants of France, there is too much reason to fear, that there is a prevailing deficiency of that beartfelt and effective Christianity, which alone can act upon society with the force of a moral antidote.

Now, we contend that this state of things in the opposite kingdom, is a subject which, apart from all considerations of peace and of war, of commercial or political intercourse, deserves the thoughtful attention of every individual, how inferior soever his station, in a free country, where the opinion of the meanest individual has a certain importance, as a unit of that currency which constitutes our moral wealth. Let it be known—let it be made intelligible to all classes, why, as a nation, we are great, and what constitutes our greatness. Let it be distinctly thewn from the fate of France, that political liberty is chiefly valuable as being essential to moral and religious freedom, and that on the independence and separate strength of each class of society, and of each member of that class, rests the whole of our collective might and grandeur. Let it further be borne in mind, that whatever tends to amalgamate a people into a passive mass, to render their wills the mere tributaries of fear or of interest, to deprive them of individuality and of independence, whether it be by the absorption of the military system, or by the undue extension of government influence, whether it be by legalized or by despotic measures, whether it be by the gradual operation of circumstances, or by the more daring application of the accursed principle of expediency, the tendency, the certain result of such a system of things

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Without fearing to encounter the reproach of being Jacobins or alarmists, we would use all the energy we possess, in pressing upon our readers the consideration, how far causes of this nature have been and continue to be in operation on the English people. It is perhaps the worst effect of what are termed politics, to fix the attention wholly on the emergencies of the moment, and to lead to a disregard of all considerations which seem to rest on theory, as only incumbering the practical question. It is now our boast to have for our ministers practical men, and, in truth, nothing is so important in the exigencies of the moment as practical adroitness. 4 Existing circumstances' being once allowed to circumscribe the views of the politician, the precedents of history and the certainties of the future, form around the political horizon a twilight into which he is not tempted to penetrate. There is scarcely any infraction of principle, which a man, with motives far from dishonourable, without any wilfulness of crime, may not be induced to consider as expedient, and, if he have the power, to adopt as necessary; and, with only apparent possibilities opposed to the convenient measure, he will not fail to render plausible, the first slight deviation from the strictness of right.

Indeed, the supposed purity of intention, and, in comparison, the superior integrity of a set of statesmen; may afford them an unhappy facility in undermining the political principles of a nation, by the introduction of a system of expediency. When once a degree of obloquy can be cast on opposition to a free government, sufficient to deter men of the more moderate cast, from venturing their character by asserting their rights, the first step is taken towards the creation of a despotism as real as the most arbitrary government. It becomes then a comparatively easy task to awe or to purchase into subjection or connivance, the turbulent and the profligate. Influence then takes the character of power, and power once surrendered by the many into the hands of the few, can never be recovered but at the expense of a conflict endangering the

interests of both.

It was a very different spirit and policy, yet maintained in perfect and reverent subordination to the authority of law, that actuated the men who were the founders of our constitutional liberty, in their resistance of the impositions of the monarch. A spirit of liberty,' says Hume, 'had now taken possession of the House: the leading members, men of an independent genius and of large views, began to regulate their opinions, more by the future consequences which they foresaw, that

their remonstrances to the king were founded on the opinion, that the reasons of the practice (there alluded to) might be extended much farther, even to the utter ruin of the ancient liberty of the kingdom.'\* A species of reasoning, however cogent, that would be treated very lightly by the House of Commons in the present day, when opposed to practical

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In proceeding to contrast with the causes of the moral elevation of this country, the train of circumstances in which the crimes and misfortunes of the French appear to have originated, what may be termed the economical difference of the two countries, will be found to have been not the least important. England, confessedly, owes all her present greatness to her commercial character. Her maritime ascendency has arisen from this circumstance, in connexion with her insular situation; but it is not to her naval glories, nor to her national wealth, that we allude, when we attribute the greatness of England to commerce. It was commerce, as the great source of individual wealth, that was the first or most powerful means of raising the commoner into consideration, and of completing, by this means, the destruction of the feudal system in this country. 'While the barons 'possessed their former immense property and extensive jurisdictions, they were apt, at every disgust, to endanger the monarch, and throw the whole government into confusion; but this confusion often, in its turn, proved favourable to the monarch; and made the nation again submit to 'him, in order to re-establish justice and tranquillity. After the power of alienations, as well as the increase of com-'merce, had thrown the balance of property into the hands' of the commons, the situation of affairs, and the dispositions of men, became susceptible of a more regular plan of liberty: and the laws were not supported singly by the authority of the sovereign.'+ From this period, then, we may date the creation of that middle class, which forms one of the most peculiar features in our social economy; a class intervening between the arrogance of hereditary rank and the helplessness of poverty, yet, by its interests allied to both; a class in which industry and all the commercial virtues are perpetuated by their own reward, and in which the domestic affections find their most congenial soil. The accidental benefits arising from the tendency of Commerce to liberalize the mind, and to enlarge the sphere of speculation and interest, are not to be disregarded, in estimating its ef-

Hume, James I. c. xlvi.

fects on the national character; but the point of view in which its importance appears the most conspicuous, is, its operation in promoting the circulation of wealth, by which means all the objects of honourable ambition have been rendered accessible to every class of the community, their interest in the general weal has been incalculably increased, while the influence attached to wealth, underived from power, and independent of state favour, thus vested in the great body of the people, has constituted a substantial barrier against the encroachments of the aristocracy, as well as the usurpations of the crown. In fact, commerce has introduced that counterpoise into the social system, on which depends the preservation of freedom. The depression of commerce, therefore, and its consequent effects on the middle classes, in eventually resolving them into the old feudal distinctions of rich and poor, may be contemplated as an unequivocal

symptom of danger to the liberties of the country.

It is obvious to remark, that France has never been preeminently a commercial country. The proportion of her capital employed in mercantile speculations, has always, we believe, been very inadequate, and the successive wars in which the ambition of her rulers has led them to engage for purposes of aggrandizement, or from enmity to this country, have entailed the most injurious effects upon the industry and wealth of the nation. Nor has the domestic policy of the government itself been at all favourable to the encouragement of The existence of commerce is incompatible with despotism. It is well known how much this country is indebted for one branch of her manufactures, to the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; and imposts and monopolies have had their share in retarding the progress of commercial improvement in France. Add to this, that the corruption and poverty of the old feudal nobility, by removing the strongest check upon the arbitrary power of the monarch, have indirectly concurred to oppose the independence of the people. We look in vain for any class in France, under the old régime, which can be considered as answering to the middle order in England.

The representative system of legislature in this country, and the share of actual judicature vested by the trial by jury in the general body of the people, are distinguishing features of our national policy, to which we may ascribe a great proportion of our prosperity. These are subjects at which we can only glance; but, not to speak of the security of the individual, which is effected by the latter, and the way in which the general interests of the nation are guarded by the former, there has been proved by experience to result from these provisions of our constitution, an intelligent but implicit deference to the laws, absolutely independent of the sentiments with

which the personal or the political characters of the monarch and his ministers may be regarded. The loyalty of a Frenchman to the person of Le Grand Monarque, was, on the contrary, the only tie which attached him to the government, unless he was so fortunate as to be connected with the state by a share in its emoluments. A Frenchman's patriotism, according to the interpretation of a French writer, himself a royalist, consisted in loyalty to his king as the representative of his country. It was not so much to a country, then, as to a kingdom, that he belonged; and when the power of the king ceased, he ceased to be, at least in feeling, a subject. Now, it is very possible for an Englishman to hold the vices of his sovereign in indignation, and even his person in utter contempt, yet to possess an abstract regard for the monarchy, quite as beneficial as a blinder sort of loyalty to the prince, and connected with perfect obedience to the laws of the realm in all his civic capacities. In England, laws are the monarch's rule and the people's safeguard, the common basis of the prerogatives of the former and of the rights of the latter. But should the crown, by the multiplication of peerages in the upper branch of the legislature, and by an extension of secret influence in the lower, ultimately undermine the representative system, till the laws shall be altogether at the mercy of its dictation, and the people find themselves deprived of all legislative power, it requires not the gift of ill-fated Cassandra to predict, that as to the proud structure of our constitutional liberty, it will come to be said, Fuit Ilium!

Against this, or any similar danger, our only preservative is to be found in that safeguard of all our constitutional privileges, the freedom of the press. Without this, indeed, all the other features in our political system, which constitute it the admiration or the envy of foreigners, would be but the semblance of liberty. In this, the spirit of liberty itself, surviving the perishable forms of legal compact which its plastic agency has moulded, provides for the operation of decay, and the incident changes or disorders of the system, by the constant supply of vital energy. The freedom of the Press has been the great means of perpetuating all our civil and religious rights, by presenting itself in the shape of moral resistance to the encroachments of physical power. It preserves the people free, by contributing to make them deserving of freedom; and as it originates in the spirit rather than in the letter of the constitution, it serves to fix, not the authority, but the interpretation of law, exhibiting the growth of the public mind beyond the institutions of political wisdom, and opposing the irresistible might of popular opinion, to the authority of power.

Let us not be supposed to be wandering from our object. which is to take occasion from the present state of France, to contrast the causes of its moral and political disorders with those which have contributed to our superior prosperity. It has been customary to advert to the licentiousness of the French court, the degradation of the clergy, the enlightened and benevolent labours of the Encyclopedists and other apostles of atheism, and the financial embarrassments of the ministry, as the circumstances which led to the French Revolution, and undoubtedly each of these materially contributed to accelerate the catastrophe of the nation. But we may go still further back. The seeds of Revolution require many years to mature them, and the soil in which they germinate, is the slow deposite of ages. Such was the political state of France before the revolution, that had not its moral condition been equally bad, and indeed worse, any change must have been beneficial; nor is it yet capable of being fairly decided, whether, in its ultimate effects, the revolution is to be considered as having been beneficial or not. Let us revert to the religious state of France prior to that event.

It is perfectly unnecessary to remark, that nothing approximating to an enlightened toleration, with respect to religious opinions, ever prevailed in France, either in the policy of the rulers, or in the sentiments of the people. In some parts of the kingdom a considerable number of Protestants have nevertheless continued to reside, some of whom have enjoyed adegree of opulence, but the oppression to which they were constantly exposed has rendered their condition widely different from that of their fellow-subjects. The Author of the "Notes for a Me-" morial relative to the Persecution of the Protestants in the "South of France," begins his appeal, by adverting to the

fact that

'Since the massacre of Saint Bartholomew and the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the Protestants of France have successively lost all the advantages which Henry IV. had granted them.'
The Edict of 1787, granted by Louis XVI. in acknowledging the legitimacy of Protestant marriages, and of the offspring of those marriages, contained something generous, although it could not be termed strict justice; but this Edict was far from granting to the Protestants privileges equal to those enjoyed by the Catholics.'

It has been adduced as a crime, a proof positive of covert sedition, on the part of the Protestants of 1816, that the Protestants of 1789 beheld without regret the downfall of a monarchy which had been characterized by bigotry and oppression; and it has been another ground of malevolent accusation, that they felt the value and rejoiced in the possession

of a fall toleration under the usurpation of a man, who, whatever were his vices and his crimes, had this claim to their gratitude. But we return to the consideration of the State of

France in a religious view, prior to the Revolution.

The only religion established or protected in that kingdom, was the Romish superstition, or, in another word more emphatic from the accumulated force of a thousand horrid associations, POPERY. Popery, however, although we believe it to be essentially unchanged, and unchangeable under every modification, conveniently accommodates itself to the manners of the people who receive it. In Spain, Popery is rank bigotry and exterminating cruelty; in Italy, it assumes the shape, or rather forms the veil of licentiousness; in Germany, it is gross infidelity; in France, its peculiar feature was empty pageantry, being at once a state engine and a national amusement. characters of the clergy answered to the religion to which they were attached. They were a class in which piety was still more rare than talent. There were few Bossuets, but a Fenelon was a prodigy. They were, finally, a class burdening the people, but dependent on the State.

All that has been suggested as to the importance of a middle class, and of a counterpoise in the opulence of the commoner to the power of the peer and the influence of the crown, applies to show the extremely pernicious influence of this vast mass of inert population, circulating, without imparting energy or becoming assimilated in its circulation, through all the veins of the body politic. The clergy of France were, as the clergy of an endowed, or, at any rate, of an exclusive religious establishment must necessarily be, a species of nobility, differing from the nobility principally in this, that they had only a life interest in the order to which they belonged, and that they held their rank more immediately in fealty to the monarch: a confederacy, rather, having interests separate from those of other citizens, the gradations of which were externally collateral with all ranks in society, yet still distinct from all; the whole really forming a preponderating accession to the aristocracy, yet, in strict alliance

with the State.

But in the case of the Roman Catholic Priesthood, there is another circumstance which still more forcibly illustrates its incompatibility with national independence. The spirit of the order, especially in the most powerful of its ecclesiastical incorporations, moulded every member of that priesthood to one purpose, and that purpose utterly fatal to the liberties of mankind, being no other than the establishment of a domination over the intellect and conscience. All other objects of their ministry were subordinate to this. For this purpose they framed their

league with the temporal monarch; and the success with which the Cardinal toiled in the cabinet, and the Confessor in the chamber, is matter of history. To a nation held in this two-fold bondage, infidelity seemed to display the charms of enfranchisement, and no wonder it was greedily embraced. Nor will all the splendours of Nôtre Dame, nor will all the armies of St. Dominick, recover the French nation to a cordial subjection to Popery. Yet, this is to be the established religion of France!

It is not in the power of any government to confer religion on a nation: we will go further and affirm that it is not in its power to benefit the interests of religion by its interference. It has long been shewn, that premiums and monopolies originally designed for the encouragement of trade, have been rather injurious than otherwise, by interfering with its natural course. Light will find an entrance, and water its level. All the aid which governments can render to truth, to moral and religious knowledge, and to freedom, is comprised in this, Remove the obstructions. Institutions which originate with the people themselves, will always be most adapted to the occasion; and since they will partake of the character of those who framed them, they will always be most efficient, and best proportioned to the actual want. It is seldom that the bestowments of a government are wisely made, or graciously received. It is the glory of England, that all that is munificent in her charities, all that is patrioticin her institutions, her noblest achievements, her commercial greatness, but above all, her exertions in the cause of Christianity, have proceeded solely from the people, have been the natural product of faculties freely exercised, and principles actively in operation; and the greatness of our government consists in its resting on the wills and resources of such a people. This, then, is the third point of contrast, which the circumstances of the English people exhibit to those of France. We have an endowed hierarchy, but it is disarmed of spiritual power; and although admitted in its higher ranks to a share in the legislative functions, it is excluded altogether from the executive The interests of the English Clergy are much more closely united with those of the people, than those of other countries, the single circumstance of the abolition of celibacy being attended with the most important benefit. Lastly, by the increased toleration of religious opinions, the people are in a great measurelest to the free and uncontrolled supply of their moral wants, and the heart cannot in this respect be deceived: at least, the Bible shall direct the diseased mind to its cure, and the wounded heart to its Comforter.

One more circumstance, we cannot unfortunately term it s

point of contrast, forces itself on the mind, in contemplating the present state of France, as an auxiliary cause of its present debasement, and this is war. The national vanity of the French, has ever busied itself with dreams of conquest, and projects of invasion. The portfolios of the minister have been swelled with surveys and plans for carrying into execution traditional schemes of this nature. Arbitrary monarchs would find it politic to devise measures for beguiling the nation and employing the army, and the temper of the French has led them to be at all times satisfied with the glory for which they suffered and paid. France has stood prominent in the annals of glorious achievement as a military nation; but a military nation cannot be a free nation. The very means of levying war at pleasure, is too great a trust to be committed with impunity to the hands of any ruler, because the possession of those means makes it his interest to perpetuate war. War can be carried on only at the expense of the industry of the nation; and the way in which the necessity for repairing the ranks moveddown by the cannon operates, leads to invasions on the personal independence of the subject, to the destruction of, the sacredness of individual will. The brilliant prospects of advancement which the army holds out to younger branches of families in the higher orders, is another circumstance of prejudicial influence on the best interests of society; and the extended patronage and indirect influence which war throws into the hands of the State, is so much deducted from popular independence. On these accounts, then, the nation which, seduced by vain glory, or precipitated by false policy, aims at securing a military preeminence, is cherishing a passion fatal to her civil freedom, her commercial prosperity, her domestic virtues, and her true interests. And what is this military glory which has conspired to ruin France, to devastate Europe, and which threatens to replunge the nations in barbarism? The glory of successful murder, in which men are the agents and demons only the spectators! Ohigh heroic sainted valour! the service of Moloch was less fatal to human happiness than thine.

'It remains,' then, as Mr. Scott justly remarks, ' for ourselves to provide for the future, and to render our country an exception to the common history of nations, which generally commences political and social decline, from the apex of military fame. It is true, that the exertions necessary to attain to the latter, have a debauching as well as an exhausting tendency,—but Britain has, more surely and fully than any other State ever had, the principles of counteraction and renovation within herself. The great matter is, that men of influence and power among us, should see with a clear eye into what forms the very essence of the strength of Great Britain,—and have hearts good enough, and intellects sound enough, to dispose them to address themselves to strengthen and encourage the only real vital principle of their country's pre-eminence hitherto.' p. 228.

This is, indeed, 'the great matter,' and whether or not we should be found entirely to agree with this intelligent and spirited writer, as to what that vital principle is, which constituted the strength and pre-eminence of Great Britain, we fully accord with the general tenor of his remarks; and we extract, with a high degree of pleasure, the following admirable reflections.

The political institutions of society are at least as far from having reached perfection, as the arts and sciences; and if change and experiment are not so practicable in the former as in the latter, vet, in proportion as it is mischievous to tamper with them but when the occasion is clear, the opportunity striking, and the call urgent, it is dangerous and guilty to withstand those great invitations which at intervals summon mankind to improve their condition. - It would be stupidly base to set down all these disturbances that have of late year agitated Europe, to a wilful and unfounded temper of popular insubordination:-the convulsion can only fairly be considered as a natural working, accompanied with painful and diseased symptoms, but occasioned by the growth of men's minds beyond the institutions that had their origin in a very inferior state of information. Nor should England consider herself out of the need of advancing herself further, because she is already advanced beyond her neighbours; on the contrary, her strength and wisdom lie in maintaining her wonted prerogative of being the first to move forward in a safe road, -of first catching the bright prospect of further attainments,-and securing for herself, in the independence and fortitude of her judgment, what others tardily copy from her practice. The vigorous habits of action and thought, which her rulers have found so valuable in the late struggle for national fame and pre-eminence, are only to be preserved, as they were engendered, -namely, by admitting popular opinion to busy itself with the internal affairs of the country, to exercise itself freely on the character of its political establishments, to grapple on even ground with professional and official prejudices and prepossessions, and finally, to knock every thing down that does not stand firm in its own moral strength.—This is England's duty to herself,—and to the world at large she owes an equally sacred one : viz. so to regulate the application of her influence and power, that it shall oppose no tendency to good,—that it shall never be available to evil and bigoted designs, masking themselves under canting professions,-but justify those loud and confident calls which she has every where addressed to generous hearts and fine spirits, demanding that they should feel and join her cause as a common one for the honour, the interests, and the hopes of human nature.' pp. 229-232.

Mr. Scott proceeds to remark—but the popularity of his former volume will secure, and we are glad of it, an extensive circulation for his present work, and we need not therefore swell this article with further quotations—that 'It may be doubted,' whether this country has, in every respect, 'duly maintained' the high ground on which she assumes to stand.' He alludes

in strong terms, to the conduct of the head of the English Government, in conveying 'the signs of personal esteem,' to that imbecile and execrable tyrant Ferdinand of Spain, whom he justly designates as 'an ungrateful despot, an enslaver of his people contrary to law,' 'an usurper,' who 'ought to be deemed quite as distasteful, if not so dangerous' a one, as Bonaparte. He calls upon the nation to prove that it was, as it was pretended, 'in pure indignation against tyranny, and the pretensions of villainous imposture, that she fought in Spain,— and not solely against Buonaparte as the enemy of England's tens and muslins, her severe maritime code, and her suspicious Indian conquests!' and he concludes with manfully affirming, in a spirit worthy of an Englishman, that

'No one, surely, now-a-days, will be found in this country to maintain that mere birth alone constitutes royal legitimacy. If so narrow an interpretation were that, according to which the principle is understood by that combination of persons in authority over society who have done so much to render it paramount, and who say they are resolved to keep it so,—mankind would have much less reason for congratulation than they are instructed to believe they possess. The glory of the people of England has been well proved in what they have sustained and achieved,—the chief glory of their rulers remains still to be proved.' p. 233.

We do hope and trust, that the asserter of these worthy sentiments, will never be either tempted by interest, or impelled by necessity, to swerve from the line of honourable and patriotic independence.

Mr. Scott makes no allusion to the subject of the disturbances in the South of France. He probably had not at the time the requisite data, on which to form a competent opinion of their real nature. The public will not much longer be the sport of contrary opinions on this subject. The pamphlet affixed to the present article, translated, and we are sorry to say, badly translated, from the French of a Protestant clergyman, himself a sufferer and an exile, will serve to convince the most incredulous, we imagine, that they have had a religious, not a political origin, that they have assumed a most malignant character, and that, inasmuch as not a single instance can be adduced of the agents in those infamous transactions, having been brought to condign punishment, the French government has incurred a degree of implication in them, from which it is imperiously called upon to discharge itself. The Author of the Memorial asks,

Will the kind of protection which is now granted to the Protestants of Nismes be of long duration? The Protestant powers who have overthrown the Government under which they were protected, should at least become their protectors. It would be truly worthy

their dignity to befriend the Protestants of France, after having replaced the Pope on his seat; and contributed to the re-establishment of the Inquisition in Spain.' p. 44.

We have attempted in this article to illustrate and account for the present moral condition of the French nation, contemplating them as the victims of an unhappy combination of political evils. The removal of these evils, is that which as men and as Christians we ought with earnest solicitude to desire, in whatever way it might interfere with our own commercial or political interests. If, indeed, the affairs of France should at length assume the character of permanent tranquillity, so as to allow of the growth of her commerce and the consequent improvement of her navy, the affairs of England must not only have been going wrong altogether, but her prosperity must be considered as wholly artificial and irretrievable, if in the advancement of another country, her own loss be necessarily involved. It would become us then at once to meet, and provide for the possibility of, an event which, in its aspect on the general interests of society, would be so highly desirable.

The continuance of external peace would infallibly lead to important changes in the social economy of the French nation. The object next in present importance, yet not of secondary moment, is the establishment, on a permanent basis, of an enlightened and unlimited toleration, in matters of religion, which might throw open the darkened aisles and polluted altars of the temples of superstition, to the purifying light and genial breath of Heaven, or, in other words, to allow of the entrance of Protestantism, as a religion not of secular institutions, but of life and power. Of what does France pre-eminently stand in need? Of that of which Spain and Italy, equally with China and Mexico, stand in as utter need:-THE GOSPEL. And will the time never arrive, when the vine-covered hills of France shall rejoice in the free proclamation of the genuine tidings of the Gospel of peace? What might we not hope for, for Europe, for the world, if France and England, for ages opposed to each other in irreconcilable hatred, should ever be brought to unite, not in a hollow and interested treaty of state alliance between their rulers, but in a union, originating with the people of both kingdoms, cemented by mutual obligations and common interests, and rendered permanent by the influence of genuine Christianity, prevailing alike in the social character of each nation?

Art. II. The History of the Propagation of Christianity among the Heathen, since the Reformation. By the Rev. William Brown, M.D. in 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 623 and 654. Price 25s. Longman and Co. London, 1814.

ASSUREDLY, the preaching of the Gospel is the most important of human avocations. All other employments relate to limited objects and to transitory interests; this is a work the purpose and effects of which extend into eternity; its scope is vast as the population of the globe, and the number of sinners reclaimed and of the just made perfect,

shall be consummated, and time shall be no longer.

But when we contrast with the sphere of exertion, the extent of the efforts which are made by Christians, to promote the knowledge and to diffuse the enjoyments of the religion they profess, great as those efforts at present are, in comparison of the supineness of past ages, they awaken feelings allied to those which excited the demand of the prophet, "Who hath " despised the day of small things?" It is indeed a fact awfully illustrative of the essential depravity of the heart, that while the greatest energies of the greatest minds, the utmost means of the most enlightened nations, are, more or less, continually exercised in achieving the destruction of their species and the desolation of nature, the labours of the Missionary are by numbers treated as visionary, and by others deemed expensive. With great difficulty Christians at home can raise sufficient funds to defray the comparatively few and small expenses of that little detachment of the Church militant, who bravely go forth by twos and by threes, to conquer strange kingdoms for their Divine leader.

It was a melancholy feeling that overspread our imagination on closing these volumes, as we rapidly glanced at the various scenes of Christian missions during a century and a half, and reflected on how much had been done and suffered, and how little had been effected, by all the labours and sufferings of these good men during that interval. The only thought that reconciles the mind to such a retrospect, is that of the elevated enjoyments which, even in the present world, a truly Christian Missionary must derive, under all his privations and trials, from the peculiar incentives which animate him, the simplicity of purpose with which his whole mind is occupied, and the lofty and intimate converse which, in his sequestered and barbarous station, he is enabled to maintain with the world of spiritual realities. It is natural, and it comports with the ordinations of Providence, that those whose hardships, and anxieties, and privations, are so much greater than what are experienced by any other class of evangelical labourers, should be supported by enjoyments more intense, in proportion as their affections are more fervent. While all that they could possibly endure, is not "worthy to be com-

" pared' with their eternal reward.

But much as we felt disposed at first to deplore the inadequacy of the result of so much toil, when we honestly appreciate the effects of the preaching of the Gospel among heathens of every description, we may safely affirm, that no exertions of intellect, no sacrifices, no achievements in any secular undertaking, can be so gloriously successful as Mis. sionary labours have been, and, where they are faithfully per-

formed, continue to be.

In one campaign of such a war as we have seen in our days, nay, by one battle such as that of Waterley, there is incomparably more misery inflicted and entailed, in person, in property, in peace of mind, in life and in death, on all classes and conditions of society; on king and peasants, on old men, women, and infants, immediately or remotely implicated, than was endured by all the men of God, whose sufferings and achievements are recorded in these volumes, during a period of one hundred and fifty years; and we will add, without fear of successful contradiction, that in Greenland alone, a country overlooked by all the philanthropists of Europe, except a few Danish and Moravian Missionaries, more good has been done to mankind, and certainly more glory given to God, than has been directly accomplished by all the wars of Christendom, from the days of Gustavus Adolphus to these of Napoleon Bonaparte. Greenland is but a small, though certainly an essential province of moral conquests. Let none then who are incited to offer themselves to this service, be disheartened, when they read of the long, and sore, and bitter trials, the late, and tardy, and small success, of the most zealous, indefatigable, and competent Missionaries: it were worth all the efforts and all the sacrifices of a whole life, to be the instrument of accomplishing the conversion of but one heathen, with all that that conversion involves.

The following is an instance of the unspeakable joy which sometimes surprises and overwhelms a Missionary engaged

in his work, when perhaps he least expects it.

Five years had now elapsed since the missionaries (the Moravians) landed in Greenland; yet hitherto they had toiled and laboured in vain, but now they began, at last, to witness the fruit of their unweared exertions. A number of Southlanders happening to visit them, at a time when one of the Brethren was writing out a fair copy of a translation of some part of the Gospels, they were curious to know what the book contained, and he was no less willing to gratify their wishes. After reading some portion of it to them, he asked them, Whether they had an immortal soul? To this they replied, Yes. He then enquired, Where their souls would go, when their bodies should die? Some answered, Up yonder; others said, Down to the abyss. Having set them right in these particulars, he asked them, Who made the heaven and the earth, and all things? To this they replied, They did not know, nor had they ever heard; but certainly it must have been some great and powerful Being. He then told them of the creation of the world, of the fall of man, of our misery in consequence of sin, and of our redemption through Jesus Christ. In speaking on the latter subject, he was enabled to describe the sufferings and death of the Redeemer with more than ordinary force and energy; and he, at the same time, read to them from the New Testament, the history of his agony and of his bloody sweat in the garden. Upon this, one of the savages, named Kaiarnak, stepped up to the table, and in an earnest affecting manner exclaimed, "How was that? Tell me it once more; for I also would fain be saved!" These words, the like of which the missionary had never heard from the lips of a Greenlander, penetrated his whole soul, so that the tears rolled down his cheeks while he gave them a general view of the life and death of Christ, and of the plan of salvation through him." Vol. I. pp. 354-5.

This poor savage became afterwards a true convert, and enabled not only to rejoice in the Lord Jesus, but to suffer for his sake.

In every Mission there has been a first convert; and as a mother watches over her infant to discover the first glance of intelligence, and to witness its earliest effort to stand or to walk alone, so the Christian teacher, when his eye has once singled out of the pagan crowd, one whom the "word spoken" has touched with compunction for sin, follows him with yearning tenderness and unceasing solicitude, marking every symptom of growth in grace; and smiles, and weeps, and hopes, and fears, and wrestles for him in agony

of prayer, as for a son born to him in the Gospel.

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On the other hand, let no friend of the truth, at home, become disconsolate, when in spirit he looks over the face of the globe, and sees how wide is the wilderness, how few and small are the spots already cultivated, appearing like African Oases, as islands of verdure in an ocean of sand; for, by the faithful, contemporary, and consentaneous exertions in this work, of all those that truly love the Lord Jesus Christ, much more may be done in a few years, in disseminating the Gospel, not only by the way side, among thorns, or in stony places, but in good ground, than we dare at present imagine. If the Saviour of mankind was sometimes restrained, or, in the language of Scripture, "could not do many mighty works," because of the want of faith in Vol. V. N. S.

those around him, his disciples in this day are much more restrained, and do much less for their master, in his name. in his strength, and for his sake, than they might do, owing to their own "little faith" in the efficacy of his Gospel. And we fear that this defective faith indicates defective experience of the full efficacy of the Gospel on their own souls. Just in proportion as we believe that He will work among the heathen to whom his word is preached. shall we be excited to use the means, and perform the part appointed to us, as " labourers together with Him." We shall give our money freely, offer our prayers fervently. and devote our talents strenuously, in this cause, precisely according to our faith that they will be effectual; and effectual they shall be-so God has ordained it-effectual in proportion as we believe that they will be, when we know and are sure that He has called us to this ministry. We disclaim, however, every intention to inculcate here a foolish and famtical credulity; or to compromise one particle of his word respecting the power of that faith, which, at all times, in all places, and under all circumstances, firmly believes that

God will do what he has promised to do.

The volumes before us refer exclusively to Protestant Missions. Had the Author's plan embraced those of Roman Catholics, they have been so numerous and extensive, and of so long standing, that the bulk of the work would have been more than doubled. It is to the shame of Protestants, that the professors of the true faith have shewn themselves far less zealous to promulgate it, than the anti-christian Church of Rome, or the followers of the impostor of Mecca, have been, to propagate their false doctrines. Wherever Catholics or Mahometans have carried their arms or their commerce, there also they have planted their errors. Are bigotry and superstition, then, more active, mischievously active we meknowledge, than the faith in Christ, which works by love! We boldly answer, No, in the face of all the facts that appear to prove the contrary. But the reason that Protestants in general are so indifferent to the diffusion of their religion, is, that they themselves are too generally indifferent to religion, and want not only the pure motives, but the restless stimulants of bigotry and superstition, to induce them to labour for its extension. Yet, we would not be understood to condemn altogether the exertions of Roman Catholic Missionaries. Wherever popery has been enforced by fire and sword, we regard the promulgators with horror, and the converts with compassion; but wherever the truths of the Gospel, the essential truths of the Gospel, however mingled with human mistakes in the interpretation, have been sin-

cerely taught, we cannot doubt, that the blessing of God has accompanied them; and it is far from being improbable, that in the day of judgement, there will rise from the remotest regions of South America, the now interdicted shores of Japan, and the impenetrable recesses of China, thousands, and tens of thousands, to call those blessed, whose names are unrecorded on earth, and whose good works are as absolutely forgotten as if they had never existed. Another remark we must make, and we grieve while we make it:-If Protestants have been less eager than Papists and Mussulmen, to establish the form of religion in their colonies, of all Protestants, the British have been the most negligent in this respect. Conquest and commerce they have carried on with purely secular views; and of our countrymen it certainly cannot be said, that they have profaned the Gospel by propagating it with violence, or have debased it by blending it with avaricious speculations. Wherever Spain, Portugal, Holland, and Denmark, have formed settlements in heathen lands, something has been done, not only to furnish the factories with chaplains, but to supply the natives with teachers, to instruct them in the principles of Christianity. By the British Government and by the British East India Company, so little has been done for the latter purpose, that the representatives of the parties themselves, we presume, would rather that it were passed over as nothing, than be told how little it has been.

We shall not attempt more than a recapitulation of the various contents of these volumes, making however a few occasional extracts and passing observations. The work itself is a compilation, not marked either with extraordinary defects or extraordinary merits. It is conducted with general fairness, and, we believe, without any wilful prejudice or perverse partiality. Its principal recommendation is, that it comprehends, in a moderate compass, a sketch of the several Missions undertaken by Protestants since the middle of the seventeenth century, whether instituted by Governments, or, as they have chiefly and most successfully been, supported by particular classes of Christians, especially British; for this is the glory of our country, that while as a nation we have been more remiss than any other, in introducing our holy religion into our Pagan dependencies, as private Christians we can shew Missionary trophies already won, equal to those of the Danes and Germans, while, at this very time, we are meditating and carrying into effect evangelical enterprises, far beyond any thing which they ever attempted, or even anticipated in hope.

The first and second chapters of Dr. Brown's History, contain some imperfect notices of experiments made in the six-

teenth century by the Swiss and the Swedes; the former, for the conversion of the Savages in South America, and the latter, of their neighbours and subjects the Laplanders.

The third chapter informs us, that in Ceylon, soon after its discovery, the Portuguese had widely established popery, but the Dutch having conquered the island, immediately proceeded to make the inhabitants Dutch Christians instead of Portuguese Christians.

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- Besides settling ministers and erecting schools in the island, they issued a proclamation, ordaining, that no native should be raised to the rank of a modelear, or admitted to any employment under the government, unless he subscribed the Helvetic Confession of Faith, and professed himself a member of the Reformed church. This absurd and impolitic order, so well calculated to make the people hypocrites, not Christians, was attended with complete success. The higher ranks of the natives, and all who aspired after either dignity or office, immediately professed to abandon the religion of their forefathers, and to embrace the faith of their conquerors. Vol. I. pp. 8—9.
- 'Nothing more was demanded of them, than that they should learn to repeat the Lord's prayer, the ten commandments, a morning and evening prayer, and a grace before and after meat. When the ministers, in the course of their visitations, were certified by the schoolmaster, that the poor Pagans had committed these things to memory, (for they themselves were ignorant of their language,) they proceeded to baptize them without further ceremony.' Vol. I. p. 9.

We can believe, notwithstanding these slender qualifications, that the poor natives were in many instances as good Christians as their teachers. At any rate, the end was laudable; and the means were inefficient rather from the ignorance than from the neglect of those who employed them. The following paragraph reflects little credit on our country, and shews how nationally indifferent we are to the interests of religion abroad, whatever zeal may be manifested for our Church and State at home.

'In 1796, the Dutch possessions on the island of Ceylon, surrendered to the arms of the British; and for a considerable time
the religious instruction of the natives occupied no part of the attention of their new masters. The European clergymen became
prisoners of war; the native catechists and schoolmasters no longer
received their salaries; the duties of public worship, and the education of the youth, were either feebly discharged, or entirely
neglected; and the memorials presented by the inhabitants on
these subjects, were considered by a military commander, either as
matters in which he had no concern, or which he had not power
to redress. Many of the churches now fell to ruins; thousands of
the natives, who had once called themselves Christians, relapted

into heathenism; and the prohibition of the Dutch against erecting any new Pagan temples being no longer in force, the number of these was doubled in a short time.' Vol. I. pp. 13-14.

But early in 1803, instructions, in his Majesty's name, were received at Colombo, directing that the annual expence of all the schools on the island should be limited to the sum of £1500 sterling; and as this was not more than sufficient to support the academy for instructing the natives in the English language, and the different asylums for the orphans of Europeans, the salaries of all the country schoolmasters and catechists were once more withdrawn, while the whole saving to the revenue scarcely amounted to the sum of £1800 a year. We are happy, however, to understand that the schools have, to a certain extent, been again established, chiefly through the instrumentality of Sir Alexander Johnston, chief-justice of Ceylon, whose benevolent exertions promise to be of essential service to the cause of religion in that island? Vol. I. pp. 15—16.

'In propagating Christianity in Java, and the neighbouring countries,' says Dr. Brown, 'there is nothing for which
the Dutch have been more distinguished, than by their
'zeal to furnish the inhabitants with the Holy Scriptures.'
Did our East India Company ever thus concern themselves for the eternal interests of the wretched millions, whose
temporal interests have been so little promoted by their connexion with our trading conquerors?

The fourth chapter, consisting of six sections, is exceedingly interesting. It contains a sufficiently clear and copious retrospect of the propagation of Christianity by the Anglo-Americans, as our Author designates the British Colonists, The extraordinary labours of that eminent servant of God, John Eliot, the first apostle of the Indians in Massachusets, are briefly detailed. He was peculiarly qualified for the work in which he had engaged. Ardent, indefatigable, patient, discreet, and courageous, he was at once the patriarch and the evangelist, the legislator and the priest, of the poor barbarians whom he had gathered around him, and whom he governed with equity and taught with faithfulness. One extract from his history, will shew his character, and the perils of his situation, when he went forth with his life in his hand among murderers, whom he could meekly brave to their faces, when they were most infuriated.

'In a letter to the Hon. Mr. Winslow, he says, "I have not been dry night nor day from Tuesday to Saturday, but have travelled from place to place in that condition; and at night I pull off my boots, wring my stockings, and on with them again, and so continue. But God steps in and helps me. I have considered the exhortation of Paul to his son Timothy, Endure hardness as a good soldier of Jesus Christ." Such sufferings as these, however, were

the least of his trials. When travelling in the wilderness without a friend or companion, he was sometimes treated by the Indians in a very barbarous manner, and was not unfrequently in danger even of his life. Both the chiefs and the powaws were the determined ene. mies of Christianity - the sachems being jealous of their authority, the priests of their gain; and hence they often laid plots for the de. struction of this good man, and would certainly have put him to death. had they not been overawed by the power of the English. Some. times the chiefs, indeed, thrust him out from among them, saying, "It was impertinent in him to trouble himself with them or their religion, and that should he return again, it would be at his peril.' To such threatenings he used only to reply, "That he was engaged in the service of the Great God, and therefore he did not fear them, nor all the sachems in the country, but was resolved to go on with his work, and bade them touch him if they dared." To manifest their malignity, however, as far as was possible, they banished from their society such of the people as favoured Christianity; and when it might be done with safety, they even put them to death. Nothing, indeed, but the dread of the English prevented them from massacring the whole of the converts; a circumstance which induced some of them to conceal their sentiments, and others to fly to the colonists for protection.' Vol. I. pp. 32-33.

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Independently of his active services among the heathen, Eliot accomplished a task so immense and complicated, that to do it with tolerable propriety, might alone well employ all the time of an ordinary man's life. He translated the Old and New Testaments into the Indian language; a language the most difficult and unmanageable for such a purpose, that can be imagined. His strength was not spent in vain; social and moral improvement were generally conspicuous among his people; and on the hearts of many, we may believe that a true work of conversion was begun and finished under his own eye.

The most distinguished of Mr. Eliot's contemporaries, survivers, and successors, were the Mayhews, in Martha's Vineyard, Messrs. Browne, Cotton, Hawley, and Tupper, in New Plymouth, Mr. Serjeant, in New Stockbridge, Mr. Kirkland, among the Oneidas, and above all the humble, simple, fervent, and self-sacrificing David Brainerd, in New Jersey. We reluctantly pass over the multifarious labours of these men, of whom, with the exception of the last, the names are now scarcely known in Christian churches, and in the world they are either utterly forgotten, or cast out as nought; yet, in the book of life, where they are written, greater honour is attached to such names, than has ever redounded to all the kings, and conquerors, and statesmen, and philosophers, and poets, that, from the beginning of time, in exercising their transcendant powers, have sought their own glory, and an earthly immortality.

In reading the history of these zealous witnesses, we were much

affected by the recurrence of the fact, in every instance, of the rapid decay of the Indian population. Not only the living generations to whom Eliot and others preached, have long since slept with their fathers, but their posterity have dwindled to a few families, or disappeared altogether; and it seems the inevitable destiny of these hapless beings, tribe after tribe, to become extinct as civilization advances into their wildernesses.

The fifth chapter supplies us with narratives of the dissemination of Christianity by the Danes, in two extremes of the globe; in the East Indies, where they possessed only one small colony, and in Greenland, where they claim the undisputed sovereignty of an icy desert, two thousand miles in extent. To the honour of Denmark be it remembered, that the government, in both these cases, have displayed a zeal according to knowledge and a fidelity of purpose, in supporting these Missions, which no other Protestant government can pretend to have rivalled. For nearly a century in Greenland, and more than a century in Tranquebar, they have regularly maintained Christian preachers, who have generally been able, active, conscientious ministers of the Gospel, on the one hand to the shivering savages under the pole, and on the other to the indolent voluptuaries in the torrid zone. Among the latter, one of the most eminent was the late Mr. Swartz, of whom frequent and honourable mention is made in these days, though a few years ago his name was unheard of, and the very existence of a Danish Mission at Tranquebar was scarcely known in this country. In Greenland, the forerunner of the Moravian Brethren was the Rev. Mr. Egede, a man who, in defiance of every discouragement and difficulty at home and at court, began to preach Christ to the miserable natives; and amid hardships and sufferings unimaginable by those who live at ease in their possessions, continued his exertions for many years. Though his success was appearently small, his labours were duly rewarded by his Master, by whom alone their number and their issue could be estimated.

In relationship to the Missions of the United Brethren, more generally called Moravians, we have had repeated opportunities of bearing testimony to the humble, patient, and invincible perseverance, with which, in simplicity and fervour of spirit, they serve the Lord Jesus Christ. For upwards of fifty years these people were little known, or only known by the calumnies circulating against them on their first appearance in this country, and which they answered effectually, by living so that nobody at length believed their traducers. As for their Missions, they were scarcely heard of in Christendom, till their growing prosperity fairly compelled attention from a gazing world; and well might the world gaze, when, on the one hand the wilderness

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began to rejoice and to blossom like the rose, while, on the other, the mountains brake forth into singing, and the dark places of the earth shone with the glory of the Lord. Then, indeed, were the Brethren's Missions admired, honoured, and imitated; for, by the universal assent of their fellow Christians, they are at this day allowed to have exhibited plans and means of converting the most rugged and refractory heathen, worthy of general acceptation. The records of their early Missions having become exceedingly scarce, Mr. Brown, in his History, supplies succinct views of them, abridged from "Crantz's Greenland;" "the History of the Brethren," "Loskiel's North America," and the "Periodical Accounts."

We shall give one extract from the section concerning Greenland, because it affords us an opportunity of making a very

important remark.

In 1750, when the Greenlanders removed from their tents into their winter houses, they amounted to upwards of three hundred, and the number who had been baptized, within little more than eleven years, was no fewer than two hundred and fifty-six. In that part of the country, it was formerly deemed impossible for two families to find subsistence; yet this great number of persons not only subsisted, but were able to afford relief to those who were in need, though there had been such famines in other places, almost every year, that even where provision used to be most plentiful, many had died of want. Some of the savages from Kangek had lately buried an old man alive, and when they were called to an account for their conduct, they pleaded, in excuse, that it was done at his daughter's request, because he had got a putrid hand, and could do nothing for his own The Christian Greenlanders had never been reduced to support! such extremity, for they had learned not only to pray, but to work, and even to be good economists. They now, indeed, enjoyed great advantages for the preservation of their provisions, in the storehouses which were lately erected for the use of them and the missionaries. Christian David, when he was in Greenland, with the new church, observed the need which they had for some accommodation of this kind, as for want of it their dried meat, fish, capelins, and other articles, which they preserved under heaps of stones, were often either half-devoured by the foxes and ravens, or reduced to a state of putrefaction, and this was apt to be succeeded by scarcity or infectious disorders. He had, therefore, returned some time ago, with suitable materials, and erected a large store-house for the Greenlanders, and a small one, together with a wood-house, for the missionaries.' Vol. I. pp. 384-385.

Here is exhibited a striking example of the effects of Christianity on the temporal condition of savages; it civilizes, it enriches, it enlightens, it exalts them as social beings. The wisdom of man says, 'First civilize barbarians, and then christianize them;' and the wisdom of man has proved itself foolishness in every experiment of the kind which it has made,

though it must be confessed, that it has been too prudent or too selfish to make many. The wise counsel of God is very different. This says, Go and preach the gospel to the Gentiles, whether Greeks or barbarians; if to the latter, you will civilize them by so doing, and just in proportion as they are christianized, they will be civilized. No motives less powerful than conviction of sin, fear of hell, faith in Christ as a Saviour, his love shed abroad in their hearts, and hope of everlasting life; no motives less powerful than these can command attention from fierce, obstinate, sensual savages, to plans of civilization, much less wean them from their roving, indolent, cruel habits, and make them stationary, social, gentle, self-denying, humble beings. If there be an instance to the contrary, in all the intercourse of Europeans with untutored Pagans in Asia. Africa, or America, let it be produced as a confutation of our remark; but instances in confirmation of it may be produced in every quarter of the globe, among Greenlanders, Esquimaux, Indians, Negroes, and Hottentots. If the Danes and Moravians had perseveringly endeavoured first to humanize, and then to convert the Greenlanders, by teaching them letters, economy, and arts, the work of conversion would have been unbegun at this day! Thousands of these poor people, now, we trust, in glory, would have gone out of the world, unchanged in this life, and unprepared for the future eternal world, by any knowledge of the Gospel of peace; and instead of Greenland being, as we readily believe it to be, the most Christian country on the face of the earth, scarcely a trace of idolatry being left, and almost all the people being truly taught of God, by faithful ministers, it would still have been a coast of barren rocks and islets, engirdled with tempestuous seas, and thinly haunted, rather than inhabited, by a species of human beings, less enviable in their temporal condition than the seals, and bears, and sea-fowl, on which they preyed, and more miserable than these, inasmuch as the grave itself would have offered no refuge to them, as immortal beings, from the evils of life.

We mention Greenland particularly, because the plan of reformation, by teaching the natives useful arts and moral lessons, was tried for a while, and to a sufficient extent, both by Mr. Egede, and the first Moravian missionaries, to prove its utter impotence to reclaim a single adult savage from his rude habits and his hideous superstition; whereas, by preaching the love and the sufferings of Christ, in plain and simple terms, and publishing "redemption in his blood" alone, the Gospel, after a progress of four-score years, may now be said to have completely triumphed over the hearts and manners of this obdurate race: they are christianized almost without exception, and so far civilized, that in proportion to the population of each country, there are, probably,

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in Greenland more persons who can read, than in Britain. It is true, that in the former there is scarcely a man to a square league of wilderness; but the victory of the cross has, for that very reason, been the more signal. The few inhabitants were scattered in solitary families along a coast of two thousand miles, and there was not such a thing as a village in the whole country; yet have these wanderers been gathered into one fold, under one Shepherd, in a spiritual sense; and those of them who belong to the Moravian Brethren, are settled in three pleasant neighbourhoods, at the distance of several hundred miles from each other, where they live together in true Christian fellowship.

Dr. Brown next gives some account of the Methodist Missions in the West Indies. There, indeed, Mr. Wesley's followers have been eminently instrumental in bringing thousands of Negro Slaves into the liberty of the Gospel. Among other heathens, this class of Christians have perhaps done less than might have been expected from their known zeal and activity at home, and in North America. It seems probable, however, that in the course of a few years, they will not be behind the most zealous of their contemporaries, as teachers of the Gentiles. The recent tidings from their friends in the Island of Ceylon, where a native Budha Priest has been the first fruit of their evangelical labours, promise, at least to our hopes, a great harvest of good.

Then follow accounts of the interesting and astonishing labours of the Baptists, both in the conversion of souls and in the translation of the Scriptures. In the conversion of souls, considering the time, and the circumstances of the people among whom they are domesticated, they have done as much as any of their forerunners in India; but with respect to the translation of the Scriptures, they have absolutely done more than all their fore-runners and fellow-labourers, either in India or in any other part of the world. For this work they seem to have been especially sent out; and on them there has been poured such a spirit of grace and power to accomplish it, that it may truly be said, the gift of tongues has been extraordinarily, though not miraculously, bestowed upon them. Their proceedings are so generally known, and so fully approved among other denominations of Christians, that we need not further enlarge upon their successes.

Our Author, in detailing the romantic and multifarious history of the first experiments, or adventures as they might be called, of the London Missionary Society, has not spared the errors of good men full of zeal, and altogether unexperienced in the work which they undertook to direct; nor the apostacy of false brethren employed by them in the execution of their

magnificent plans. The principal misfortunes in the commencement of the operations of this Society, were occasioned by the appointment of improper persons, who offered themselves as candidates for this new and noble service. Its managers have become wiser by the knowledge which cost them so dear in the outset. They have learned that it is easier to raise money than Missionaries; God alone can send these; and we believe, that now they are as discreet and as happy in the choice of . persons to intrust with the charge of bearing the vessels of the Lord in distant climes, as any of their brethren who are engaged in the same holy service. That due honour may be done to a Society which is the glory of one class of Christians, the Independents, and reflects equal lustre upon professors of every denomination who can conscientiously unite with them for the furtherance of the pure Gospel of "Christ crucified," we shall quote the following passage.

We question, indeed, if in the whole history of the propagation of Christianity in modern ages, a mission is to be found so fruitful in important and interesting lessons, as the mission to the South Sea Islands. We shall make only one other remark, and we think it is an observation of considerable importance. The mission to the South Sea Islands, though it has been attended with little or no success in that quarter of the globe, has yet been a powerful mean of promoting the interests of Christianity in other parts of the world, particularly in Pagan countries. Eliot, and Mayhew, and Brainerd, the Danes, the Moravians, and the Baptists, had all engaged in missionary undertakings, and most of them with considerable appearances of success. But their operations never awakened the Christian world from the lethargy into which it had fallen. Individuals were interested and delighted with their exertions; but the great body of professed Christians scarcely ever heard either of them or their labours. It was not till the Missionary Society was formed; -it was not till the magnificent mission to the South Sea Islands was undertaken, the splendour of which dazzled the eyes of mankind, that the Christian world was aroused from its slumbers. Then a general concern was excited throughout the whole of Christendom, for the conversion of the Heathen. Old establishments were revived, or at least supported with more vigour, and prosecuted with fresh zeal. New institutions were formed for the propagation of the gospel at home and abroad, some of which have already been crowned with extensive success, while others promise a yet more abundant harvest. In short, a hew impulse appeared to be given to the operations of the Christian world; and this, we think, may be traced in no inconsiderable degree, to the splendour and magnificence of the mission to the South Sea Islands.' pp. 402-403.

The concluding chapter of Dr. Brown's Work, includes sundry narratives respecting the exertions of the Edinburgh Missionary Society in Africa and Tartary, and those of the

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Church Missionary Society in the Soosoo country, on the coast of Africa, which are well worthy of honourable mention here. The Appendix contains a variety of miscellaneous in. formation, which could not well be reduced under any of The Work as a whole, if we regard the foregoing heads. the subject alone, certainly exhibits some of the most subline and affecting views of human nature, which the history of the world can display.

Art. III. Letters from a Gentleman in the North of Scotland, to his Friend in London: containing an Account of the Highlands, &c. Printed 1754. Reprinted with Notes 1815. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 594. Price 15s. Gale and Curtis.

T is not without emotions of melancholy, and almost of regret, that, in contemplating the history of nations, we perceive the once strongly marked traits of characteristic manners, and the vestiges of ancient customs, fading into indistinctness, while the race distinguished by those historic peculiarities, becomes daily more assimilated to the people with whom they are surrounded. The feelings with which we revert from their present habits to their past condition, are in some degree analogous to those, with which the lover of nature never fails to witness the vanishing beauties of an evening landscape, Eager to prolong the vision of what is so soon to dissolve into darkness, he loves to watch from some eminence the surviving glow of light in the west, and to catch the reflection on some spire or turret, long after the rest of the scene has melted

into the general shadow.

The solitary memorials which thus stand out in the perspective of history, as the last on which the shadows of time are rapidly about to close, are, in this view, bighly interesting and impressive; it was therefore with expectations of peculiar gratification that we took up the present work, which professes to carry us back a century in the manners of an interesting people, the Inhabitants of the Highlands of Scotland. Unknown nationally, even to the present times, by any very splendid achievements in arms,\* or extensive conquests over foreigners; (circumstances which form the leading materials of the history of the most celebrated nations of antiquity;)—indebted, for the tribute paid to them by posterity, to no refinements of literature; since only one book, and that a disputed document, remains, by which any conception can be formed of their genius for composition; having reared no monuments of art to perpetuate their fame,

A feud between the neighbouring clans, a descent into the Lowlands, or a sanguinary contest with predatory Danes, are insulated exploits, which, how heroic soever they may have been, do not fall within the scope of the above remark.

beyond the simple cairns\* which they heaped over their fallen chiefs;—these northern tribes have, nevertheless, been enabled to excite, in every susceptible mind, a strong and permanent interest. Their ancient manners are invested with a sort of magic splendour, which excites and engages the imagination, while it warms the heart. Their almost extirpated customs exhibit an independence of mind and a generosity of disposition, which are seldom found among the artificial habits of more civilized life; and if their character was rendered in some degree harsh, by that ferocity which is found to attach to nations in which a martial spirit is bred and cherished by feudal institutions, it was associated with a chivalrous dignity, and with those virtues which spring from daring and hardy enterprise, in minds strongly influenced by romantic and generous affection.

Much of this character remained among the Highlanders so late as the beginning of the Eighteenth century, though it was considerably modified by a more unrestrained intercourse with the inhabitants of the Lowlands, than would have been tolerated in the days of Ossian. The unsuccessful attempt of the Chevalier de St. George, in 1715, accelerated the extermination of those hardy military habits, impatient of foreign control, which had long distinguished these Mountaineers, notwithstanding their nominal submission to the British Sceptre. military road was driven through the deepest ravines and the most inaccessible fastnesses; the chain of forts was completed, which, though contemptible when opposed to disciplined troops well provided with heavy ordnance, were sufficiently strong to impose a considerable check upon the thinly scattered Highlanders; and by the continual presence of an armed force, the spirit of these brave men was altogether broken. The reverses of 1745, extinguished the expiring flames of that bold independence of character, which had for ages shone forth with a peculiar brightness; but even its last flashes cast a dazzling lustre upon those intrepid heroes, who closed their career by executing prodigies of valour not unworthy of the sons of Fingal, although exerted in an unhappy and mistaken cause. With the downfall of the power of their chiefs, the peculiar habits and customs of the people also declined. That emulous ardour to rival the deeds of their fathers, so enthusiastically described in their popular songs, subsided into a languid and paralyzing submission to their conquerors. The shrill

A tumulus formed, in general, by a pile of loose stones. The term is also figuratively applied to mountains; as Cairn-Gorm; [the blue-hill;] Cairn-Dû; [the black-hill;] &c.

note of the Pibroch\* no longer echoes among the rocks, to rally a devoted clan around its chief; the bloody cross no more traverses hill and valley, to give the alarm of battle; the harp which once 'shed the soul of music' in their halls, no longer vibrates; and the song of the bard, which formerly resounded deeds of high emprise, is silenced for ever. That magic spell which associated their traditionary tales† with every train of thought, and interwove their solemn superstitions with every act and adventure of common life, was broken. So great and rapid has been this change, that it requires the closest attention to catch some glimpse of the fleeting scenes; and, in all probability, before another half century shall have rolled away, no vestige of the ancient national customs of this interesting Northern race will remain, except in the page of history.

Even at the period when Dr. Johnson visited the North of Scotland, the change wrought in the Highlands by the last conquest, and by the laws subsequent to it, had been so rapid and general, that few traces were discoverable of the habits familiar to the preceding generation. Nearly half a century ago, this keen observer of man remarked with regret,—'We came hither too late to see what we expected, a people of peculiar appearance, and a system of antiquated life: the clans retain little now of their original character; of what they had before the late conquest of their country, there remain only their language and their poverty.'! In order therefore to form correct ideas of this subject, we must transfer ourselves back to a more remote period; to one which preceded the rebellion of 1745; and it is to this early period that we are

led by the work under consideration.

These "Letters from the North of Scotland," are stated to have been written about the year 1726-7, although they were not published till the year 1754. We eagerly

\* A piece of martial music, played upon the bagpipe.

1 Journey to the Western Isles in 1773.

<sup>†</sup> The Sgeuldachds.—It is astonishing that no collection of these has yet been formed. There is, surely, some one Highlander, whose refined taste and intimate acquaintance with the Gaelic, might qualify him for the task. We indeed know, that the thoughts of an individual have been long occupied upon this subject, and we trust he will shortly favour the public with a work which cannot fail to excite considerable interest.

We take this opportunity of correcting an erroneous statement made by the Author of Waverley, who says that these "Letters" were 'published about 1726.' (Waverley, Vol. I. Preface, & Edition.) This mis-statement we are the more desirous of noticing, because we are rather sceptical both as to the genuineness

opened a book which professed to communicate some very interesting information respecting the manners of the Highlanders, drawn from living features, in the very state in which they were imbodied nearly one hundred years since. It is with considerable regret we add that our expectations have been

severely disappointed.

To paint, with fidelity, the manners of a people whose habits are totally different from our own, requires no small share of natural talent, aided by much patient observation, and influenced and directed by a benevolence of heart which leads us to survey the different tribes which people the earth, as children belonging to a common family. Qualities so rare are seldom found combined and harmoniously blended in the same individual; nor is there any evidence, that they were possessed in an extraordinary degree by the writer of the Letters before us.

The Author informs us that he was an officer in the British service, quartered with his regiment at Inverness, the Highland metropolis. A soldier residing among people lately in arms against their sovereign, and whose very profession is to watch with a scrupulous jealousy every motion indicative of a rebellious disposition, is placed, we admit, in very unfavourable circumstances, for nicely investigating and justly appreciating the national character and peculiar manners of such a people. It would indeed be remarkable, if, in attempting to sketch the character of a subjugated nation, his views should be unclouded by prejudice, or his criticisms wholly devoid of the insolence of conquest. For occasional distortions of feature delineated by such a hand, and arising from such causes, we are bound to make candid and not inconsiderable allowances.

Yet, after having made all these concessions, a more unfair account of the Highlands, we may venture to say, has not hitherto been presented to the public. Dr. Johnson's illiberal treatment of our Northern brethren is universally known, yet his utmost severity is mildness itself, when contrasted with the satirical criticisms, the uncandid observations, and the malicious flippancy, of our anonymous officer.

and the authenticity of these volumes. A material deduction must be made from the credit of testimony, which is in itself very suspicious, and which was not published till long after the times of which it professes to give an impartial account. It is admitted that 28 years intervened between the time of the composition of the letters and the anonymous publication of them; a period, considered numerically, short we admit; but in which as great changes took place in the Highlands, as are produced in some nations during two or three centuries.

If the "Journey to the Western Islands" exhibits occasionally some traces of the acerbity which pervades and characterizes the works of our great moralist, and which originated probably in his physical constitution, rather than is a want of benevolent temperament of disposition, it contains, upon the whole, a very fair account of the state of the Highlanders. Their defects are pointed out with an unbending sternness of criticism, but their condition calls forth the most philanthropic sentiments; their customs give birth to fine speculations; their peculiarities and superstitions are approach. ed with the veneration of a philosopher who knew how to respect habits which had a somewhat different complexion from his own. Not so in the "Letters from the North." They are marked with a contemptuous levity, a coarseness of satire, a bluntness of moral feeling, and a vulgar raillery, which are levelled indiscriminately against much that deserved censure, and all that early association had naturally rendered dear and sacred to the people whose manners the writer professes to paint. His assumed candour of affected impartiality, tends only to render his inveterate prejudice the more offensive. He was in fact ignorant of the simple truth, that

to mangle is not to dissect.

In regard to the style of these volumes, we deem it necessary to make but a few remarks. The materials from which they are composed, are multifarious and heterogeneous. Although 'a nicety is seldom regarded in familiar epistles from ' friend to friend,' yet we have undoubtedly a title to something like order and method; and we conceive it to be no very satisfactory apology, when we are told that 'we all know that words and phrases will not dance together at the sound of a fiddle.' We must do the Author the justice to remark that his style is remarkable for vivacity and humour; but it is to be lamented that the latter quality has not contributed to the value of his work. It has thrown over the whole an expression of vulgarity, altogether inconsistent with good taste. We will quote from the writer's own admission:—'I have been reduced to tittle-tattle as low w ' that of a gossiping woman.' Moreover, he is so fond of witty remarks, and has so violent an attachment to ludicrous narrative and to entertaining stories, that he appears not to have been over nice in appropriating them, from what source soever they were originally derived, to his own purpose; and often interrupting the series of sober and valuable detail, for the mere purpose of introducing a joke. Were we entering these Letters in a catalogue raisonnée, we should never think

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of conceding to them the claim they make to be ranked among works descriptive of popular antiquities and national customs.

In regard to his unrestrained disposition to witty sarcasm. it would be unpardonable in us not to notice the sneers with which he assails religion, through the Presbyterian clergy. That there were some censurable peculiarities in the Scottish divines of those times, it would be absurd to deny; but our flippant officer was not qualified to separate the gold from the dross. We remark a perpetual recurrence to this subject, in a style of shocking profaneness, and not unfrequently of gross indecency; \* and which cannot be censured in terms too strong. The poison is the more dangerous, because it is rendered sweet and palatable by being conveyed through the medium of highly humorous anecdote. In holding up the doctrines of the Gospel to contempt, the language of this Author forcibly reminded us of some ephemeral Hints on Evangelical preaching. Violent as the attack in these Letters is, we contend not for the superior prowess of the ancient over that of the modern assailant: Cedant arma togæ! The anonymous officer must yield the palm to the anonymous Barrister.

We have thought it our duty to express our opinion broadly and unreservedly, of a work which is not unlikely to be brought into fashionable notice, from having been spoken of in terms of high commendation by one of the most popular poets of the present age. Relying upon this commendation as adequate patronage for the work, its re-publication has been ventured on by the present anonymous Editor. We have little doubt that the speculation will succeed; it is, therefore, the more important, to guard the public mind against those prejudices and false conceptions which are so likely to be excited by a work, the popularity of which is already half secured, and which it may soon become quite as fashionable to quote for authority, as it is to make a tour to Loch Katharine and the Trosachs. Notwithstanding this generally unfavourable opinion which we have expressed, we readily admit that the work is very entertaining; it contains some just pictures of Highland customs, and exhibits a few striking traits of national manners. In short, we have no objection to adopt the character which Mr. Walter Scott has given of it, understanding his expressions in a somewhat less meritorious

We regret to add, that in one instance the Notes are not altogether free from this censure. We shall not pollute our pages by making a reference, but we have not shot an arrow undirected at a mark.

Vol. V. N. S. † Vol. I. pp. 162-165, &cc.

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These volumes contain, we confess some "curious letters." They are not unworthy a hasty perusal, though they deserve not a permanent place in the library; and we shall, therefore, give our readers a few specimens of their various matter and peculiar style.

The poverty of the inhabitants of the Highlands, is a subject sufficiently familiar to every Englishman. Let us hear our

'curious' observer's remarks on this topic.

' It is a happiness to infancy, especially here, that it cannot reflect and make comparisons of its condition; otherwise how miserable would be the children of the poor that one sees continually in the streets! Their wretched food makes them look pot bellied; they are seldom washed; and many of them have their hair clipped, all but a lock that hangs down over the forehead, like the representation of old Time in a picture: the boys have nothing but a coarse kind of vest, buttoned down the back, as if they were idiots, and that their coats were so made, to prevent their often stripping themselves quite naked. The girls have a piece of a blanket wrapped about their shoulders, and are bare-headed like the boys; and both without stockings and shoes in the hardest of seasons. But what seems to me the worst of all, they are over run with \_\_\_\_. Upon entering a room, where there was a pretty boy or girl that I should have been pleased to have caressed and played with, (besides the compliment of it to the father and mother), it has been a great disappointment to me to discoverit could not be done with safety to myself. And though the children of the upper classes wear shoes and stockings in winter time, yet nothing is more common than to see them bare-footed in the summer. I have often been a witness that, when the mother of the lesser children has ordered their stockings to be put on, as soon as ever they had an opportunity they have pulled them off, which I supposed was done to set their feet at liberty. Vol. I. pp. 89, 90.

The concluding remark recalls to our recollection a very just reply of a poor Highland lad, in Badenoch, to an offer of a pair of shoes, provided he would promise to wear them:—"Na', "na', they wad mak' my feet sair!" Sandals are a sufficient protection against the asperities of the ground; but the luxury of shoes is an acquired habit. A foot, altogether unaccustomed to them, will be chafed and incommoded by confinement; nor will it, for a considerable time, be sensible of the comfort of the rigid leathern prison!

In a district where barren rock and unprofitable heaths produce but a very scanty supply of the necessaries of life, the majority of the inhabitants are consequently very poor; and the efforts of man almost entirely directed towards wresting from the ungenial soil the means of subsistence. It is not till a country is brought

<sup>\*</sup> Scott's Lady of the Lake. Notes p. 330. 8vo.

into luxuriant cultivation, that any considerable surplus of human labour exists, to be bestowed upon the comforts and conveniences of life. Hence, it may be well conceived, that the habitations of the lower orders among the Highlanders, are miserable huts; constructed merely to afford shelter from the inclemency of the skies, with little regard to neatness, or to

habits of personal cleanliness.

As many of our readers have never visited these Northern regions, and may have neither inclination nor opportunity to undertake a pilgrimage to the mountains, we shall present them a slight sketch of manners and customs which will probably appear rather strange, and certainly not very inviting. We shall suppose, then, that a true-born Southron, \* who has never yet emigrated beyond the border country, is suddenly transported into the Highlands. He will be stonished when he hears every where of parks, to find that the term, translated into its southern synonym, implies nothing more than an enclosure; most probably some barren tract of moss and heather, surrounded by a duke + formed by the loose fragments of rock collected on the spot! If. in his rambles, he happen to inquire his way to some human habitations, he will, in all probability, be directed to a neighbouring toon, I which however he will fail to discover, unless he shall have previously learned that this pompous appellation is, in the North, very commonly applied to a collection of two or three miserable huts, which, in England, it would be thought ridiculous to advance to the dignity of a hamlet!

On approaching to take a nearer view of an individual habitation, close to the hut will be seen a dark rectangular pile of peat, an object which has a mournful and unpleasant aspect to an eye unaccustomed to associate it with the ideas of warmth and comfort. The homely dwelling itself is constructed from shapeless masses of stone, whose irregular forms have been ingeniously made to accommodate themselves to one another, so that very few interstices are left; and thus a tolerable wall is raised without cement. This rude architecture might be supposed to have resulted (like the walls of Thebes) from the spontaneous concurrence of stones, excited indeed by less smooth and melodious sounds than those which swelled from the lyre of Amphion! The roof is generally covered with slices of peat, & kept in their places by strings of heather, at the end of which are suspended weights, that hang at the eaves of the building. In the immediate vicinity

July of the temporal.

<sup>.</sup> This was the appellation given by the Scotch to the people south of the Tweed. Saxon is the name which the Gaelic language applies to us.

<sup>†</sup> A stone fence. ‡ Town: Called by the natives divot.

of the door, is the dung-hill. The perpetual draining of the more fluid parts of this offensive heap, will frequently be found to have reduced the ground to the state of a morass. In this treacherous quagmire a few stepping stones will be perceived; upon which even a dexterous foot can make no very clean approach to the threshold. But long before this shall have been gained, the stranger must expect the attack of a snarling cur, with one of which creatures every hut is provided, and whose anger is with difficulty appeased by the vociferations and chastisement of his master; and notwithstanding which, he continues to follow the intruder within, smelling at his heels with the most suspicious jealousy. Having at length encountered volumes of smoke issuing from the door, which will inevitably draw tears from his eyes, the only light which will enable him to survey the wretched interior, will be found to proceed from the entrance, from an aperture in the roof which serves as a chimney, and the fire which is kindled upon the ground (for there is no floor) in the middle of the hut. Over the burning peats will be seen a large pot for cooking the meal, suspended by a hook from the roof-tree; \* and around the glowing embers will be perceived a motley group, among whom the faithful watch-dog most pertinaciously claims his place. Our Author shall finish the picture.

At my first entrance I perceived some things like shadows moving bout before the fire, which was made with peats; and going nearer to them, I could just discern, and that was all, two small children in motion, stark naked, and a very old man sitting by the fire-side. I soon went out, under pretence of care for my horses, but in reality to relieve my lungs and eyes of the smoke.

On another occasion he says,

Notice was at least brought me that my apartment was ready; but on going out from the first hovel, the other seemed to be all on fire within: for the smoke came pouring out through the ribs and reed all over; but chiefly out at the door, which was not four feet high, so that the whole made the appearance of a fuming dung-hill removed and freshed piled up again, and pretty near the same in colour, shape, and size. By the way, the Highlanders say they love the smoke; it keeps them warm. But I retired to my first shelter till the peats were grown red, and the smoke thereby abated. This fuel is seldom kept dry, for want of convenience; and this is one reason why, in lighting or replenishing the fire, the smokiness continues so long a time. And Maggy's puffing of it with her petticoat instead of a pair of bellows is a dilatory way.'—' My landlady sat with a parcel of children about her, some quite and others almost

The main longitudinal beam. "To your ROOF-TREE," is no uncommon Highland toast, this being the chief support against the fury of the tempest.

maked, by a fittle peat-fire, in the middle of the hut: and over the fire-place was a small hole in the roof for a chimney. The floor was common earth, very uneven, and no where dry, but near the fire, and in the corners, where no foot had carried the muddy dirt from without door.' Vol. I. p. 14. II. pp. 35, 40, 41.

Such, without any strong colouring, is the comfortless thealing, the miserable hovel, of a poor Highlander; very different, undoubtedly, from the meanest cottage in England. The inhabitant of this lowly dwelling, is not, however, as he is frequently described by superficial tourists, an uncivilized being. Poverty is not to be confounded with barbarism. The poor mountaineer, in his cheerless tenement of turf, often possesses an elasticity of mind, a courteousness of address, an independence of spirit, a vivacity of intellect, and a stock of useful information, which seldom fall to the lot of the English hind; and they might justly be envied by some of those who possess the good things of this world in abundance, and who look down upon the Highland peasant with a degree

of pity bordering on contempt.

There is a very ridiculous and disgusting custom very prevalent among superficial tourists, of detailing an uninteresting catalogue of the most unimportant occurrences. They are incessantly calling our attention to an enumeration of the most trivial events of a traveller's life, as if it could be of the least import to the world, to know whether the tourist pursued his track in boots or in shoes, clad in a gray coat or in a blue jacket. And this becomes still more insufferable, when we are treated with a diurnal+ register of the Author's palate; and are condemned to sympathize with him over his tough beef-steaks and parboiled vegetables. For such tedious minuteness every sensible reader will manifest his thorough contempt; and he will have not unfrequent occasion for its exercise in these volumes. We must except, however, from this remark, every occurrence, though humble and insignificant in itself, which throws light upon national habits, as it indicates the degree of refinement of the people. With this view we shall present to our readers an extract or two upon the subject of Scotch cookery, which

<sup>\*</sup> The word shealing is, in its strict sense, applicable only to the hut constructed for the temporary summer residence of the shepherds. It is applied, also, to a fisherman's hut, or to any very humble dwelling. See Jamieson's Etymological Dictionary, in voc.

<sup>†</sup> To those who really can indulge so preposterous and guess a taste, we recommend Thornton's Sporting Tour in Scotland.

is proverbially disagreeable to Englishmen. We begin at Kelso, in the Lowlands.

'I asked what was to be had, and she [the Gude wife or mistress ] told me potted pigeons; and nothing. I thought, could be more agreeable, as requiring no waiting, after a fatiguing day's journey in which I had eaten nothing. The cloth was laid, but I was too unwilling to grease my fingers to touch it; and presently after, the pot of pigeons was set on the table. When I came to examine my cates, there were two or three of the pigeons lay mangled in the pot, and behind were the furrows, in the butter, of those fingers that had raked them out of it, and the butter itself needed no close application to discover its quality.-At a house which was my next quarters-I was told I might have a breast of mutton done upon the brander (or grid iron:) but when it was brought me, it appeared to have been smoked and dried in the chimney corner: and it looked like the glue that hangs up in an ironmonger's shop: this, you may believe, was very disgusting to the eye; and for the smell, it had no other, that I could perceive, than that of the butter wherewith it was greased in the dressing; but for my relief, there were some new-laid eggs, which were my regale.'-At Edinburgh, 'I was asked to sup at a tavern. The cook was too filthy an object to be described; only another English gentleman whispered me, and said, he believed, if the fellow was to be thrown against the wall, he would stick to it. Twisting round and round his hand a greasy towel, he stood waiting to know what we would have for supper, and mentioned several things himself; among the rest, a duke, a fool, or a meerfool. This was nearly according to his pronunciation; but he meant, a duck, a fowl, or a moor-fowl, or grouse.' Vol. 1. pp. 14, 15, 17, 18.

The Caledonian metropolis has rapidly improved in this particular since our officer's visit; and now rivals some of the most polished cities in the world in elegance and refinement. A considerable change has also been effected throughout the Northern part of our island in general; although still, among the lower orders, and even in some few particulars among their superiors, it cannot be denied that there is a lamentable deficiency in attention to the comforts and conveniences of ordinary life, and much to displease both delicacy and good taste. As to the Highlands, the improvement has been more tardy, as might be expected from the poverty of the country, and the many local physical impediments to the luxuries of neatness and cleanliness. Most persons that have travelled among the mountains, will be able to recal many of his own adventures in corroboration of the following statements.

Shall I venture at one only instance of cookery? I will,—and that a recent one. An officer, who arrived here [Inverness] a few days ago with his wife and son (a boy of about 5 or 6 years old)

were waiting for dinner, the child, who had been gaping about the kitchen, came running into the room and fell a-crying; of which the mother asking the reason, he sobbed, and said, "Mamma, don't eat any of the greens' This occasioned a further inquiry; by which it appeared the maid had been wringing the cale with her hands, as if she was wringing a dishclout, and was setting it up in pyramids round the dish by way of ornament.—At another place, he tells us, 'My fare was a couple of roasted hens, as they call them, very poor, new killed, the skins much broken with plucking, black with smoke, and greased with bad butter. As I had no great appetite for that dish, I spoke for some hard eggs.—In other journeys, when I have baited and eaten two or three eggs, and nothing else to be had, when I asked the question, "What is there for eating?" the answer has been, "Nothing for you, Sir, but sixpence for your man." Vol. I. p. 127. II. pp. 39, 41.

Oe! jam satis! Our readers will, we imagine, be abundantly satisfied with these specimens of northern fare. As for those whose curiosity is not yet satiated, and whose nerves are of a more rigid texture, let them dip into the 147th page of the first volume, and sit down to dinner in the castle of a Highland chief. After all, however, our anonymous officer appears to have had a most fastidious stomach, and to have been much more anxious to gratify his appetite, than to observe with accuracy men and manners. A philosophical traveller, when visiting such a country as the Highlands, will bid adieu to luxury, and will be independent of those paltry solicitudes which, in such circumstances, ruffle the tranquillity of the epicure. He rambles abroad, not to pamper a sensual appetite, but to feast an enlightened mind; and this being his object, he willingly makes the sacrifice of much personal comfort, as being infinitely overbalanced by intellectual and moral improvement. We are out of all patience with this military bon-vivant, declaiming against the miserable fare of the country, and, at the same time, dragging in his train 'several horses ' laden with wine and provisions!' We doubt whether many

<sup>\*</sup>A necessary consequence of the demand being uncertain. We well remember being amused with an adventure at a small change-house [inn] in one of the less-frequented of the Hebrides. Upon inquiring what could be had for dinner; "Just a fool," was the reply. "And is it of tolerable size?" Our host, with artless simplicity, conducted us to his living poultry, observing, "Gin ye're no satisfied, ye mann tak' a look on 'em, and plase yoursel."—There was character in the occurrence. Even in an English inn the same calamity might have overtaken the traveller: but the truth would have been more artfully disguised than it was by this open hearted Highlander.

other Alpine tourists have had the delicate extravagance to incumber themselves with 'lemons in a net,' and 'old book.'

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No wonder that the sublime scenery of the Scottish Alps. should have made no impression upon the heart of this luxurious son of ease. Accustomed, it would appear, to associate the idea of personal comfort with every object of interest, it is not surprising that scenes which cannot be explored without much fatigue and self-denial, should have had no charms for one so ill qualified by nature to penetrate into her awful recesses. It was perfectly in character with a mind so contracted, to remark- After this description of the mountains, you may ask, Of what use can be such monstrous excrescences?"+-A question which reminds us of a celebrated modern mathematician, who testified his disappointment in the perusal of Paradise Lost, by asking the friend of whom he had borrowed the poem, ' What does it prove?"-These volumes supply abundant evidence that their Author possessed none of those delicate susceptibilities which are never so powerfully acted upon as in the great school of nature. A very brief extract will confirm the general truth of our remarks.

I shall soon conclude this description of the outward appearance of the mountains, which I am already tired of, as a disagreeable subject. They appear, one above another, of a dismal gloomy brown, drawing upon a dirty purple; and most of all disagreeable when the heath is in bloom! The clearer the day, the more rude and offensive they are to the sight. The summits of the highest are mostly destitute of earth; and the huge naked rocks, being just above the heath, produce the disagreeable appearance of a scabbed head!!! Vol. II. pp. 6, 9, 10.

We have no critical micrometer, sufficiently minute in its subdivisions, to estimate the infinite littleness of such a mind. Every one, we admit, has not an equal perception of the picturesque; but the aberration of intellect must have been great in the extreme, where none but positively the most disgusting images were called up in the mind by a view of the most sublime objects in the physical world. How different were the speculations excited, by the very same scenes, in the comprehensive mind of Dr. Johnson! His testimony is the more valuable, as he was no enthusiastic admirer of Alpine ruggedness. We shall make a short quotation from the philosophical remarks, with which this great man closed his somewhat unfavourable account of Highland scenery. 'As we see more, we become

<sup>\*</sup>See Vol. II. pp. 51, 66, 74, 75, et passim. † Vol. II. p. 13.

possessed of more certainties, and consequently gain moer principles of reasoning, and found a wider basis of analogy. Regions mountainous and wild, thinly inhabited, and little cultivated, make a great part of the earth; and he that has never seen them, must live unacquainted with the face of nature, and with one of the great scenes of human existence\*.

The general features which distinguish mountainous districts, are pretty much the same in all parts of the world. While, however, the broad outlines have the same character, a considerable modification of scenery arises from the variations of climate. The stupendous mountains which rear their heads in the vicinity of the Equinoctial line, have their bases, to a considerable altitude, covered with spontaneous and luxuriant regetation; while those within the Arctic circle, are almost entirely devoid of verdure down to their feet. But, whatever be the latitude, at the line of perpetual congelation all distinction ceases; and the awful masses which pierce those regions of

frigidity and silence, are buried in eternal snow.

Somewhat below the limits of this rigid barrier, the snow is perpetual only in the hollows which are protected from the influence of the sun; and the naked strata are exposed to the view, towering among the clouds in frightful pinnacles. In these desolate regions, the intermediate—we dare not say imperfect—organization of the mosses and lichens, only tends to render more striking the unconquerable sterility of the rocky solitude; and when we descend still nearer the habitations of man, the lazy vegetation of the hardy plants breaks forth with reluctance from the ungenial soil; or the scanty crop barely repays the labour of cultivation. This hasty sketch will give a tolerably faithful idea of that Alpine tract which is called the Highlands of Scotland. Its highest pinnacle is 4370+ feet above the level of the ocean. This may seem to be but a small elevation, when compared with the towering summits of the Andes, or the ridges of Caucasus; and yet it will not appear altogether contemptible, when it is considered that

\* Journey to the Western Islands: (Section, ANOCH).

<sup>†</sup> This is the best barometric measurement, that has hitherto been made of Ben Nevis. The peak of this mountain is the most elevated spot in Great Britain. A few more hundred feet would have brought its elevation to the limit of perpetual congelation for that latitude. A considerable quantity of snow, however, remains upon this mountain, and many of inferior altitude, during the whole year, the average temperature being below the freezing point. The Mercury, has been found to stand pretty steadily at 32° (of Fahrenheit) for three hours together in the morning of the 1st of August, while it stood at 64° in the plain below at Fort William.

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this altitude is more than one fifth of that assigned to Chimborazo, the highest peak on the surface of the globe, which

has yet been ascertained by accurate measurement\*.

If the terrestrial undulations which swell in majestic succession throughout the north west of Scotland, are upon a smaller scale than the gigantic forms in which nature exhibits herself in the New World, or even in the European Alps,-in the general boldness of sublimity of outline they have been thought, by good judges, to bear no small resemblance to the latter. Excepting the everlasting snows of the glaciers, which give a character to the scenery of Switzerland. that admits of no comparison with that of our Island, all the other features which nature has so strongly stamped upon the most romantic Alpine districts, will be found in the North of Britain. On ascending the more elevated peaks, mountain will be seen piled upon mountain in awful sublimity and barren grandeur; and ridge succeeding ridge, with all the turbulent irregularity of a tempestuous ocean. The escarpments of the strata are often of the boldest character, and the precipices frown in terrible magnificence. The thundering cataract bursts with irresistible fury over its rocky bed, amid the weeping birches that droop along the glen, or the more majestic pines which clothe the bosom of the corrice.

Even they who have no opportunity of beholding scenes so sublime, except as delineated by the skill of the artist, must have felt some of those ennobling and delightful associations which expand the heart, and improve the intellectual faculties. But how much more exquisite are the feelings of the man, who has delighted to linger among the originals!—who has climbed the hoary cliff, brushed the early dew from the purple heather, and quenched his thirst at the mossy alpine spring! Every object with which he is surrounded, becomes a source of moral reflections. All nature seems to speak to his heart. He 'finds 'tongues in trees, books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, 'and good in every thing.' While the unruffled surface of the lake suggests the ideas of a placid and tranquil life, the foaming torrent, urging its impetuous course without control, reminds him of the tide of human ambition rolling forward with destructive energy. In the grand effects of that catastrophe which broke up the solid base of the globe, he sees an emblem of the revolutions which have agitated, and which continue to agitate,

The height of Chimborazo, as ascertained by the delicate measurements of Humboldt, is 20,282 feet.

<sup>†</sup> There is no single term in our language synonymous with this expressive word. It means, a hollow or concavity, in the bosom of a mountain.

the beings inhabiting its surface. Overwhelmed by the perpetual train of busy and impressive images which are vividly associated with all he sees and hears, he is at length lost in contemplating the power and the wisdom of that Almighty Being, who called this universal frame into existence by the breath of his mouth; who "weighed the mountains in scales, and "the hills in a balance!"

An alpine ramble cannot fail to excite in every feeling mind, such reflections as these, and ten thousand others which it is not our purpose to pursue. The scenery which gives them birth, may reasonably be supposed, therefore, to have had an important influence in forming the character and manners of a people, who can call such a romantic district their native land. It has however been doubted, whether local scenery has really any such effect upon the character; and we must admit indeed that the associations which it calls forth, will be infinitely more powerful, where the taste has been refined by education. But we cannot, surely, for a single moment doubt, that the character of at least the Highlander, has been greatly influenced by the sublime objects with which from childhood he has been familiar. The inhabitants of all alpine districts, are distinguished by a lively sensibility, and an attachment to their native region, much stronger than exists among any other people; and it would seem that they can be resolved only into that lofty, and tender, and warm enthu .sm, which was enkindled by the impressive scenes that first presented themselves to the infant mind, and which was rendered progressive by the the sublime objects which kept it in perpetual glow and excitation. Even the more physical reflections which are nursed in the mind of the mountaineer, must tend to give an important direction to his ideas. He lives in 'the laboratory of nature. ' and the reservoir from whence she draws the good and the 'evil which she spreads over our earth; the rivers which water, and the torrents which ravage it; the showers which fertilize, and the storms which desolate it: all the phenomena of general physics there present themselves with a grandeur and a majesty, of which the inhabitants of the plains have no idea! \* Nor are the moral associations which he is led to form, either inconsiderable or unimportant.

It is no objection to this theory of the influence of scenery on the mind, that the Highlander is often known to inquire, with surprise, what are the objects of interest for which the stranger visits his country. This surprise may be partly accounted for, from his observing that objects so fami-

Sassure, Voyages dans les Alpes, Tome I. p. viii. Discours preliminaire. (4° Geneve.)

hiar to himself, appear to be novel to others; and partly from the indisputable fact, that those uniform circumstances which materially influence the habits, exert an unseen agency, of which, on account of its uninterrupted action, we ourselve

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are but imperfectly conscious.

Whatever may be the cause, the fact is notorious, that the character of the Highlanders is distinguished from that of their neighbours, by many bold and prominent lines. In so far as this peculiar shade of mind receives its cast from the impressions of nature, we may expect that for succeeding generations, it will be as indelible as their mountains. But their former habits of life, no doubt, contributed to give a peculiar tinge to the character of their forefathers, which strengthened the influence of scenery: much that was distinctive in their manners, must, therefore, fade away before

the rapid changes and innovations of modern times.

The pensiveness which forms so interesting a feature in the mental temperament of this remarkable people, had its origin, beyond all controversy, in their local condition. To this solution of the phenomenon it has been objected, that in other parts of the world, a similar effect is not produced But where, we would ask, are the by similar causes. people who have been placed in circumstances so favourable to the impressions of enchanting scenery? The feudal habits so long cherished among these mountaineers, bound the whole fraternity of a clan, to their chief and to each other, by an affectionate devotedness which could not but cherish some of the finer feelings of the heart; and the chivalrous dignity with which such an independent spirit invested the mind, working upon a lively imagination, could not but render them thoughtful If to this we add other powerful and somewhat romantic. causes which operated among them, their early enlightened state, the delicate and interesting nature of their superstitions, and, in later times, their decidedly religious habits, -we shall perceive a combination of circumstances, admirably calculated to strengthen the impressions derived from the gloomy but sublime features of the objects with which their earliest ideas were interwoven. In a mind so trained, the dark glen and awful precipice could scarcely fail to awaken a corresponding and solemn imagery; 'The loud torrent and the "whirlwind's roar," with all the other accompaniments of "the 'rough music of nature,' would vibrate upon such an ear in thrilling tones, exquisitely adopted to create a tender melancholy, and to call up a train of pensive thought.

After the numerous specimens of prejudice exhibited in these volumes, we were not astonished to find the proverbial hospitality of Highlanders impeached. The Author declares that he never received but one invitation from them, but

when it was with an apparent view to their own interest;" that he has ' been unasked to eat when there was nothing to be purchased within many miles of the place;' that upon one dark night, on making up to a house where he was " well known, upon the trampling of his horses before the house. the lights went out in the twinkling of an eye, and deafness at once seized the whole family.'\* Let it be remembered that this was in the period between the two rebellions; a time when it was very possible for such jealousy of a British officer to have been manifested, without the least deficiency in hospitality. Perhaps, also, our Author was too 'well known! But it is a waste of words to notice statements which experience contradicts. We appeal to the accredited annals of past times, for facts to substantiate a virtue for which the Highlander has ever been renowned. In 'older time,' the hall of the chief was ever open to the friendly stranger; and the flowing shell went round with the inviolable pledge of hospitality. More unrestrained intercourse with the rest of mankind, has imposed necessary limits on that openness of soul which would be abused by an unprincipled world; for the very improvements of the social order are somewhat destructive of that generous and unsuspecting confidence, which can subsist only in a stage of civilization intermediate between primitive barbarism and modern refinement. Together with the influx of recent manners, there may also have been introduced many of the vicious habits of the world: but, even to this day, a ramble among those secluded regions, where the inhabitants are not yet contaminated by a selfish spirit, will afford many incidents to call forth gratitude and admiration at the simple hospitality of the Highlander. A stoup+ of milk still meets the stranger at the door of the hut; and his host, with a native politeness unknown amid 'the 'busy hum of men,' and unsolicited, accompanies his guest for a considerable distance from his dwelling, both to shew the interest which the visit has excited, and to give him suitable directions for pursuing his journey in these wild mountain

In the Highlander of former times, these milder virtues were, however, associated with several qualities of a sterner cast; and the delicate sensibilities of the heart were more distinctly visible, from being, not unfrequently, contrasted with sentiments of ferocity. If their affectionate devotedness to their chiefs, exhibited some of the finest traits of fidelity that are to be found in the annals of mankind, it was not inconsistent with the perpetual breach of all the laws of hospitality and

<sup>.</sup> Vol. II. pp. 184, 185.

good faith, when an insult was to be revenged upon some neighbouring clan. If a spirit of noble independence was cherished by a mode of life which brought the lowest of the tribe into personal intimacy with his superior, it also conduced to create a pride too easily wounded, and to nurse a disposition impatient of the control imposed by legally constituted authority. The martial habits which roused the inhabitants of a valley from their peaceful occupations, to gather them to the battle for the purpose of repelling unprovoked hostility, often led them to the most savage butchery of their fellow-countrymen, merely to avenge the indiscretion of an individual, Every passion, however noble in itself, was too highly tem-

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pered, and was of too delicate irritability.

Such a confession may appear somewhat at variance with the sentiments expressed at the beginning of the present Article; and the plaintive strain in which we took a review of that peculiarity of character of those modes of life, and which are fast vanishing away, may now perhaps be suspected of insincerity. A very few words will be sufficient to show our perfect consistency. It is one thing to feel a lively interest in retracing manners which are now no more; another, to wish to recall them into actual exsistence. Even those attractive superstitions which gave form to the mist reposing on the breast of the mountain, and voice to the hollow blast murmuring down the glen, are not to be regretted. They threw, it must be admitted, a veil of mysterious solemnity over the humblest occupations; they still contribute powerfully to engage our feelings, and to gratify our taste; but can it be deplored that this visionary creed no longer holds its empire over the mind? or that FALSE IMPRESSIONS have been supplanted by the triumphs of TRUTH?

Having resigned the most fascinating part of the system, its sterner elements may be dismissed without a sigh. Upon the whole, we rejoice that a system productive of some brilliant virtues, and of many serious evils, has gradually given way to the more social habits. Much may have been lost that was romantic; but much has been gained in solid comfort. The simple habits of mountaineers may have been partially succeeded by the vicious practices and vulgar propensities of busy life; but a more effectual provision has been made for the happiness and moral improvement of the species, that could have been effected under an order of things in which mankind were tied together in little independent knots, rather than woven into the more uniform and even texture of well regulated society. That was no very comfortable state in which it was not an uncommon event for whole herds of

cattle to be stolen from their rightful owners by a midnight foray \*; in which every man slept with his claymore by his side; and in which the unoffending inhabitants of a retired valley might be murdered in cold blood, because one of their clan had spoken insultingly of a rival chieftain. Such a state of society may be reviewed with enthusiastic interest; but from these retrospective dreams of the mind, we are glad to awaken to the sober realities of less romantic life. In short, we dwell upon these pictures of feudal manners, exactly as we should delight our eyes with the 'mixture of strength and soft-'ness, of grace and wildness +,' which characterizes the daring paintings of Salvator Rosa. We catch the spirit of his breathing figures. With his predatory banditti we scale the cliffs, and rush down the ravine upon the unwary traveller. But the ardour of imagination would speedily cool, were these reveries of fancy to assume instantaneous existence: we should recoil with horror, were the robbers suddenly to start from the canvass, and did we perceive ourselves to be surrounded by a troop of sanguinary murderers.

Art. IV. Chemical Essays, principally relating to the Arts and Manufactures of the British Dominions. By Samuel Parkes, F.L.S. 5 vols. 12mo. price 2l. 2s. Baldwin, Cradock, and Joy. London, 1815.

THE Author of these Essays is already advantageously known to the public, by his "Chemical Catechism," a useful elementary work, which has been well received and has had an extensive sale. He now makes his re-appearance as an author, with the avowed object of diffusing information among that important class of the community, who are engaged in those departments of manufacturing industry that are dependent on chemical principles, and to whom therefore some knowledge of the principles on which their respective arts are founded, is of great and vital importance. For it is an obvious truth, that in proportion as those who are engaged in conducting these processes, shall be conversant with their scientific principles and relations, will be their confidence of always obtaining uniform and successful results; and their means of introducing such scientific or economical improvements, as may ultimately carry them to perfection.

In the progress of mankind from a state of ignorance and barbarism, to that of refinement and civilization, the arts naturally precede the sciences; but, during that period, their progress, if indeed they are at all progressive, is extremely slow;

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<sup>•</sup> The Creach.

<sup>†</sup> Eustace's Class. Tour in Italy, Vol. II. p. 444. 4to Edition.

and the occasional improvement which they may receive, is the result of fortunate accident, and not of well directed inquiry. The establishment of some fixed scientific principles, soon becomes indispensibly necessary to the farther advancement of all which are not strictly manual; and until these shall have been developed, they must remain circumscribed within the most narrow bounds. Lord Bacon has finely illustrated this subject, by his profound remark, that the discovery of gunpowder was solitary because it was accidental; for had it been the result of scientific investigation, it would have been followed by a crowd of others. This vantage ground being once gained, a new career is opened, which, when compared with the individual capacity of mankind, is of boundless extent.

We may observe, as a further illustration of this subject, that the periods most strongly marked by great improvement in the arts, will be found to be those which have been most distinguished by the progress of scientific discovery. The discovery and development of the theory of latent heat, by Dr. Black, led in the most direct manner to that great improvement in the construction of the steam engine, which, perhaps more than any other individual circumstance, has contributed to raise the manufacturing establishments of Great Britain to their pre-

sent unrivalled pitch of greatness.

The "Essays" which have led to these preliminary observations, are of too miscellaneous a character, to render them susceptible of very rigorous criticism; nor do they contain to large a proportion of new matter, as to make it proper to attempt an analysis of each individual essay. They will be found in general to address themselves less to the man of science than to the manufacturer, who, it may be expected, will seek to advance his knowledge of the processes about which he is more especially interested, by the most direct and least laborious The details are consequently in most instances of a purely practical nature; and Mr. P. has occasionally passed into the description of processes which almost belong to the province of manual arts. This has been especially the case in the essays on glass and earthenware; but though it certainly contributes to make them more generally amusing, yet we doubt if it contributes equally to their usefulness. In general, however, they who wish for information on the subjects of which Mr. Parkes has treated in these volumes, will find them illutrated in a clear and perspicuous manner, and which even those who are not very conversant with scientific chemistry, will not find it difficult to understand. He has indeed shewn great judgement, in keeping the language of his work level with the attainments of those who have never studied chemistry as a

science, but who, from the nature of their occupations, are most likely to be purchasers of his work, and in whose hands we apprehend it will be found most extensively useful. His own avocations, and his familiar acquaintance with the science of chemistry, have enabled him to become intimately acquainted with the principles of those subjects on which he treats; and throughout the work he shews an anxious concern for the improvement of our domestic industry, which proves that the welfare of his country is an object of his constant solicitude. He neglects, therefore, no opportunity of pointing out the relations of the respective arts, with the established principles of chemical science, nor of suggesting inquiries or supplying hints, the investigation of which might lead to considerable improvements.

The successful execution of such a plan as Mr. P. has proposed to himself, requires, indeed, accomplishments which are rarely united in the same individual; a profound acquaintance with chemical science, and an intimate knowledge of those arts which are dependant upon it, not as they are often imperfectly described in books, but as they are really practised in the recesses of our manufacturing establishments. Mr. P. has indeed had many valuable opportunities of acquainting himself intimately with the principles and practice of many of our domestic manufactures, and they have not been thrown away upon him. He has availed himself of them with diligence, and his work may be read with advantage by many, who would be discouraged from seeking information from works which are of a purely scientific character.

are of a purely scientific character.

There is one feature of this work, which we must not over-

look, because it contributes a great deal to relieve the uniformity of more formal details. Mr. Parkes has been very attentive on most subjects, in collecting what may be classed as historical notices, relative to the introduction and progressive establishment and extension of some of the important objects of chemical manufacture; a class of facts which are from their nature very liable to fall into oblivion, but which will merit to be preserved, as contributions to the history of our domestic industry, to which many an ingenious and active individual has essentially contributed, whose name will never find its way

to that notice to which it is fairly intitled.

In the selection of the subjects of his Essays, Mr. P. states, that he has chiefly fixed on those which have been least examined by other chemical writers, and 'In all cases due attention has been paid to the improvement of the manufactures of the kingdom.' The following are the subjects of the Essays:—On the Utility of Chemistry; on Temperature; Specific Gravity; Calico Printing; Barytes; Carbon; Sul-Vol. V. N. S.

phuric Acid; Citric Acid; the fixed Alkalies; Earthenware and Porcelain; Glass; Bleaching; Water; Sal Ammoniae; Edge Tools. The fifth volume consists entirely of Additional

Notes and Index.

On perusing this enumeration, it will immediately occur to every chemist, that some of the essays scarcely come within the range of chemical science; and perhaps Mr. P. ought, on that account, to have made the title page of his work more comprehensive and general, for certainly edge tools and specific gravity cannot be regarded as objects of chemistry. Yet those essays will no doubt be found valuable to a certain description of readers; and perhaps that on specific gravity will be the most generally useful of any in the work. We think, however, that the ample space occupied by the first essay, might have been more usefully filled up; for the importance of chemistry, and its extensive application to all the purposes of life, are now so well known, and so correctly appreciated, as to make an essay on such a subject a much less appropriate introduction, than it would have been twenty or thirty years ago.

It is extremely difficult too, on such a subject, to avoid being perfectly trite, and where Mr. Parkes, has endeavoured to give novelty by deviating into less trodden paths, he has unfortunately ventured upon subjects which, being foreign to his pursuits, he does not understand. If there is any class of persons, for example, to whom an exhortation to study chemistry is superfluous, the medical profession is certainly that class, for chemistry forms a constant part of professional education, and it would be grossly incomplete without it. Mr. P. however, in the fulness of his zeal for his favourite science, has recommended it to their sedulous cultivation, for reasons which are less to be admired for their truth than their singularity. After exhorting the medical student, for example, to make himself acquainted with the composition of the different salts, (a very superficial acquirement by the by, for any medical student,) he remarks, 'This will inspire him with professional confidence; and he will be as sure of producing any particular chemical effect upon his patient, as he would if he were operating in his own laboratory.'

This appears to us to be perfect verbiage; for we have yet to learn, nor does Mr. P. inform us, what resemblance or analogy there can be, between the operation of chemical substances on each other, and their effects on the animal economy. What chemical property of mercury or antimony, for example, will throw the least light upon the power of one in exciting salivation, and of the other in producing vomiting. Mr. P. however, has a remark on the subject, which he may perbaps think will make the matter plain and intelligible, though

we confess it does not do so to us; nor will it, we apprehend, to his Readers.

Besides,' he remarks, 'the human body is itself a laboratory, in which the varied functions of secretion, absorption, &c. composition and decomposition, are perpetually going on: how, therefore, can he expect to understand animal physiology, so necessary to the practice of physic, if he be unacquainted with the effects which certain causes chemically produce?'

Time has been, certainly, when, by oxygenating or decarbonizing the blood, or by neutralizing acids or alkalies which were
supposed to be present in the fluids, physicians were to accomplish wonders; but these reveries have had their day, and are
now as completely exploded as the visions of the alchemists.
In fact, whenever men forsake the business of observation for
the love of hypothesis, there is no end of human folly and extravagance. So far as relates to the arts in general, the importance of chemistry cannot easily be over-rated; but in the
practice of medicine it is entirely subordinate, though still
minently useful.

Mr. P. appears to us to place our own country in an unfavourable contrast with France, as to the proper appreciation and the facility of acquiring a knowledge of chemistry, to those who are preparing for the active duties of life. But in this we are ready to hope there is some misapprehension, for it is notorious that in Great Britain the means of obtaining an intimate and even profound knowledge of chemistry, are within the reach of every person who, with competent intellectual ca-

pacity, has time and money to bestow upon the acquisition. The vanity of the French character inclines them to make more parade of their institutions than we do; but we believe our own will be found to embrace every solid requisite for instruction.

It is not our intention to give an analysis of each individual essay contained in these volumes, as such a plan would extend beyond all reasonable limits, nor are they very readily susceptible of being so treated; we shall therefore offer such observations as have suggested themselves in the course of our perusal, trusting that we shall not be thought uncandid if our remarks should appear to be confined in a great degree to those parts which are most open to animadversion, either from carelessness or inadvertency. In questions of science, accuracy is always highly important, and is generally attainable by the exertion of reasonable diligence; and, in works of science, errors ought therefore not to escape animadversion. Some of these we have noticed in the course of our perusal, and though not numerous, we think it right to point them out. In adverting for example to the advantages arising from a cultivation of chemistry, Mr. P. remarks,

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The making of cast steel which has been kept so profound a secret, is now found to be a simple chemical process, and consists merely in imparting to the metal a portion of carbon by means of fusing it in crucibles with carbonate of lime, or by cementation with charcoal powder, in a peculiar kind of furnace constructed for that purpose.' Vol. I. p. 33.

This is a very confused and erroneous statement of a fact in itself sufficiently simple. The first conversion of iron into steel, for manufacturing purposes, is effected, we believe in every instance, by the process of cementation, in which bar iron (generally Swedish) stratified with charcoal coarsely powdered, is exposed to an intense heat in a furnace constructed for the purpose. In this state it is called blistered steel. To convert it into cast steel, the bars of blistered steel are broken into fragments, and then fused in a crucible, with a small quantity of a flux which melts into a coarse kind of glass, which when fused floats on the surface, and prevents the action of the external air on the steel. When the steel is brought into a state of perfect fusion, it is poured into moulds, and it is then the cast

steel of which Mr. Parkes speaks.

In the essay on temperature, p. 126, Mr. P. remarks that if water had the property of acquiring the same temperature from the sun's rays as the land, 'the evaporation in summer would be excessive and detrimental;' yet, in the succeeding paragraph, he observes that in hot climates, the seas, rivers, &c. are prevented from acquiring the temperature of the adjoining lands, by the evaporation which is continually going on at the surface of the water; so that after all, this difference of temperature is owing to the very causes of which the non-existence is, in the former case, assumed as an instance of Divine wisdom in the adaptation of the world to the circumstances and condition of its inhabitants. The general views given of combustion, at p. 171, are singularly loose and unphilosophical.

'Increases its absolute weight. Thus by exposing melted lead to the action of the atmosphere, under a peculiar management, red lead is formed, and a ton of pig lead will yield 22 cwt. of red lead. But where complete combustion takes place, this increase is generally more considerable; thus if 100 pounds of zinc are burnt in a proper apparatus, flowers of zinc will be formed, and the product will be 125 pounds.'

What precise meaning Mr. Parkes may attach to the term, incipient combination, in this particular instance, we do not profess to understand; nor does the illustration convey to us any clear or definite explanation. The combination of the oxygen with the metal, is equally perfect and complete in both the in-

stances adduced, though the phenomena which accompany the combination, are in some respects different, so that the one may be regarded as an example of combustion, which is not the case with the other. But the distinction as stated by Mr. P. does not appear to us to have any foundation either in fact or theory, nor can such a view of the subject convey any clear and correct notions to the uninformed. In the same loose and careless manner it is asserted, that if lamp oil be burnt in a way that the product can be examined, it will be found that the whole is converted into pure water, and that every 100 ounces of oil will produce 130 ounces of water. Were this statement correct, it would necessarily follow that oil is pure hydrogen in a liquid form, which the most superficial acquaintance with chemistry will teach us it is not, but a compound of hydrogen and carbon; so that there must be a pretty considerable production of carbonic acid during the combustion, as well as of

In the essay on sal ammoniac, Vol. 4, p. 378, Mr. Parkes gives an account of the process for preparing it, for which Mr. Astley, of Borrowstonness, near Linlithgow, (not near Leith, where Mr. P. places it,) has obtained a patent; and he is extremely anxious to recommend the adoption of this plan to those who, with skill and capital for the undertaking, have the advantage of residence near the salt works in England. Mr. P. remarks on this subject, that having acquired a knowledge of the fact that the bittern of the Scotch salt works is allowed to be used duty free for these purposes, the question immediately occurred to him—

'If the inhabitants of one part of the empire are allowed an article which is capable of being used in our manufactories, duty free, why should not the same indulgence be universal in England and Ireland, as well as in Scotland? Reflecting still more on this subject, and knowing that the riches of a country depend in a great measure on its producing within itself most of the articles required for its own consumption, I think it my duty to make this circumstance more generafly known, in the hope that some competent person, possessing the advantages of capital, and a favourable locality of situation, would petition the legislature for leave to commence such an undertaking, and thus relieve the country from the necessity of sending into another quarter of the globe for a supply of this valuable and necessary commodity. If a company of persons accustomed to the manufacture of sal ammoniac, was established in the neighbourhood of any of the salt works in Cheshire, or near the salt pits in Droitwich, in Worcestershire, and could obtain permission from government to use the bittern which is produced at either of these establishments, and which at present is thrown away as an useless residuum, I am certain that such a company would be enabled to offer the article in question, much cheaper than the English Sal-ammoniac has ever yet been sold,

and at a rate which would effectually prevent the importation of sal ammoniac from any part of the East.'

Mr. P. has here fallen into a very important error, which it is the more necessary to notice, that persons inclined to enter on speculations of this kind, may not be misled by the prospect of advantages thus delusively held out from the want of more correct information. In Scotland, salt for domestic purposes, is obtained from sea water by evaporation; and there is consequently a very abundant residuum of the nature which This residuum however is not homogene-Mr. P. has stated. ous; it consists of sulphat of magnesia, which we believe goes under the appellation of bittern, and which when crystalized and purified, is the Epsom salt of commerce, and the muriate of magnesia, which being uncrystallizable, goes under the name of oil of salt, and is the material made use of by Mr. Astley in his process for preparing sal ammoniac. But it happens very unfortunately for Mr. Parkes' recommendation, that at the salt works in Cheshire and Worcestershire, so far from these substances being thrown away as a useless residuum, they do not occur at all; the brine from which the salt is obtained not containing any sulphat of magnesia; and of the muriate of magnesia a quantity too small to separate during the evaporation so as to form a residuum. That this is the case of the salt works at Droitwich, we know from personal inquiry.

Mr. Horner, in his account of the salt springs at Droitwich, published in the second volume of the Transactions of the Geological Society, estimates the proportion of muriate of magnesia, at only 1 76 grains in each pint of brine, or .07 per cent. of the whole saline ingredients; so that it does not bear the proportion to the marine salt of 1 to 1600. We have not at hand the means of stating the proportion of this salt in the Cheshire brine, but we believe it is equally pure as that of Droitwich. Hence, the salt manufactured at these places is dry and clean, and does not deliquesce at all; while the Scotch salt is quite the reverse, and always requires to be kept in a dry, warm situation, to be at all fit for use. There are we believe a few situations on the English coast where sea water is evaporated for the making of salt, as at Lymington, and there the recommendation of Mr. P. might be adopted with advantage; but it does not apply at all to the salt works in the interior of England, so far as our acquaintance with them goes Whether the proprietors of the works on the coast, are prohibited from availing themselves of the advantages which Mr. P. has pointed out, by the excise laws, we do not know; but the manufacture of Epsom salt is carried on there we believe to a pretty considerable extent. We apprehend, however, that these establishments are not of sufficient extent to make the question of any importance in a national point of view, as it regards the manufacture of sal ammoniac; though certainly there can be no equitable reason assigned for imposing limitations on the capital and ingenuity of one part of the Empire, which are open and free in others.

We have pointed out these instances of carelessness and inaccuracy, not in the spirit of uncandid severity, but because the last is especially too important to be passed over without notice, and because we are persuaded Mr. P. would be himself the first to wish for their correction. The more pleasing part of our duty remains, to point out by a reference to a few of the essays, the species of information, which Mr. P. has selected for the gratification and instruction of his readers. The essay on burytes contains a good deal of curious and useful information on the native salts of that earth, more especially its carbonat. It is well known, that if the carbonat of this earth could be procured in sufficient quantity at a cheap rate, it might be introduced into the arts with great advantage, especially for the purpose of obtaining soda by the decomposition of common salt. Mr. P a few years ago, visited the principal mines from which it has been obtained, situated near Chorley, in Lancashire; and he gives an interesting detail of the information which this visit enabled him to produce. A century ago it seems these mines were worked with success for the lead ore with which they abound. The carbonat of barytes being the matrix in which it was imbedded, was left in the mine as a useless production. The late Sir F. Standish, however, the proprietor, discontinued the working of these mines about five and twenty years ago, from no other cause as it would seem, than that he was defrauded by the persons in his employment, and from that time they have been abandoned entirely. About that period the nature and properties of the barytic carbonat, were investigated and made known; and our present knowledge of the useful purposes to which it may be applied, would now augment the value of the produce very considerably. It is on this account much to be regretted, that the present proprietor is not induced by these considerations to have them worked again; for it does not appear from the information obtained by Mr. P. that any deficiency of lead ore had been felt before the working was given up.

It would seem, however, that even at that period, the carbonat was known to be applicable to some useful purposes in the arts. Mr. P. was informed that about thirty years ago, these mines were visited by two Frenchmen, who collected and carried away a pretty considerable quantity of this mineral; and that subsequently a man who occupied a small farm on the estate, had been engaged in a clandestine commerce with it, for, as it

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was thrown about the shafts as a refuse article, he was enabled for some time to collect considerable quantities without exciting What he thus collected, was sent privately to observation. Liverpool, and from thence exported to Germany. This man was informed by the agent at Liverpool, that it was employed in the manufacture of Porcelain, and though any information on the subject which he was likely to procure, must be liable to considerable uncertainty and suspicion, yet this hint may deserve the attention of the manufacturers of this costly production, in our own country, if this earth does not already enter into the composition of their Biscuit ware. Mr. P. learned that the inhabitants of this sequestered district had found by experience, that this mineral was a poison to their cattle and poultry, probably long before its deleterious effects on the animal economy were known to physicians and physiologists.

The essay on sulphuric acid contains an interesting account of the progressive improvements by which the manufacture of this important chemical agent, has been brought to its present state of perfection and extent. The tedious and expensive mode of obtaining it by distillation from the sulphat of iron, or copperas of commerce, was first superseded in this country by the ingenious Dr. Ward, who formed the sulphuric acid by the direct combination of its constituent principles, though the process does not appear to have been his own invention. That gentleman, however, obtained a patent for this process, by which sulphur and nitre were burnt together in large glass globes, of the capacity of forty or fifty gallons each, each globe having a proper quantity of water introduced into it, to absorb the acid as it was formed during the combustion. By this means, he had for some time the monopoly of the manufacture of this acid, until the celebrated Dr. Roebuck, of Birmingham, introduced the capital improvement of conducting the combustion of the mixture of sulphur and nitre in chambers constructed of sheet lead. This plan at once removed the great source of expense in the breakage of the glass vessels, and speedily reduced the price of the acid to about one fourth of its former cost; and thus contributed in the most direct and essential manner to its extensive introduction into various processes of the arts, from which its former high price must have nearly excluded it.

The first establishment of the leaden apparatus was effected at Birmingham, by Dr. Roebuck in conjunction with the late Mr. Samuel Garbett; and this original work still continues to be carried on. The situation of this work however, and the difficulty and danger of transporting it at that period, (about 1746,) when our internal navigation was so incomplete, confined the consumption of the acid principally to the neigh-

bourhood of Birmingham. Other establishments were consequently formed, in the first instance at Prestonpans, by the original proprietors; and afterwards the demand increased, by other persons in various parts of the kingdom, until the number of manufactories of sulphuric acid has become now very considerable. These chambers were in the first instance cubes of about six feet, but they have been gradually enlarged according to the judgement or caprice of individuals engaged in the business; for experience does not seem to have proved that the dimensions of the chamber are of any importance. They now vary from twelve to twenty feet in width, and from twenty to forty in length, and there is one, Mr. P. informs us, in Lancashire which is 120 by 40 feet, and contains a space of 96,000 cubic feet.

'The process, however, whatever may be the size of the chambers. is generally conducted similarly, and in this way. A quantity of common brimstone, coarsely ground, is carefully mixed with crude salt petre in the proportion of seven or eight pounds of the former to one pound of the latter; and this mixture is afterwards divided into separate charges, containing quantities proportioned to the size of the chamber in which they are intended to be burnt. The best method for apportioning this mixture appears to me to be this: to allow one pound for every 300 cubic feet of atmospheric air contained within the chamber. The mixture of sulphur and nitre is usually spread upon several plates either of iron or of lead, and these are afterwards placed upon stands of lead within the chamber at some distance from each other, and at a foot or two above the surface of the water. Things being thus arranged, the sulphur is lighted by means of a hot iron, and the doors are then closed. If well mixed the brimstone and nitre will soon be in rapid combustion, which will continue for 20 or 30 minutes, during which the chamber will become entirely filled with gas. Three hours, calculating from the time of lighting, are generally allowed for the condensation of this gas; and then it is customary to throw open the doors for three quarters of an hour, for the free admission of atmospheric air and the expulsion of all the incondensable gas, in order that the house may be thoroughly sweetened, as it is called, for the next burning. During this interval the plates are again charged, and preparation is made for a fresh combustion, which is thus repeated every four hours, day and night, without intermission, till the water at the bottom of the chamber is thought to be sufficiently acidified, when it is drawn off, by means of a syphon, into a reservoir of lead, conveniently placed for its reception, and the floor of the chamber replenished with water for another making.' Vol. II. p. 414.

The acid obtained in this manner is still largely diluted with water, which it is necessary to remove by evaporation, that the acid may be brought to the degree of concentration in which it is met with as an article of commerce.

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This is generally performed in boilers of lead; but if required to be very pure, it is concentrated in vessels of glass. In its most concentrated state, it is commonly of the specific gravity of 1.847, and still, according to Dalton, contains about 22 per cent of water. As however it is almost always necessary to dilute it with water, before it is applied to the various purposes for which it is wanted, Mr. P. has constructed a very useful table (the result of actual experiment) of the specific gravity of the concentrated acid when diluted with different proportions of water, which, though it has been published in the Philosophical Magazine, is very properly reprinted in this Essay. There is also another table added, shewing the change of the specific gravity produced in the concentrated acid at various degrees of temperature from 10°. to 192°.

In the essay on citric acid, Mr. P. gives a minute and circumstantial account of the manipulations requisite to be practised, to obtain this most useful acid in a crystallized Before Scheele's time some unsuccessful attempts to purify it had been made; but it was this distingui hed chemist who first devised the process for separating the foreign substances with which it is combined in the fruit, and thus enabling the pure acid to assume the state of crystals. The process which Mr. P. recommends, is that of Scheele; but as he has himself practised it on a scale of considerable magnitude, he has pointed out many circumstances which the operator will find it useful to attend to, in order to ensure complete success in his operations. The exact saturation of the citric acid with lime, for which purpose the carbonat of that earth should be employed, the complete decomposition of the citrat of lime by the sulphuric acid, which, combining with the lime, sets the citric acid free, and the proper management of the evaporation, so as to bring the liquid citric acid into a state of concentration favourable to the formation of crystals, are important steps in the process, upon each of which Mr. P. gives some judicious and useful directions.

Mr. P. states as the result of his own experience, that twenty gallons of good lemon juice, will generally give eighteen pounds of dry citrate of lime, and this, if the process is well conducted, will yield ten pounds of pure colourless crystals of citrie acid. The many important purposes to which this acid has been found applicable, not only for domestic and medicinal purposes, but also in the arts, more especially in the delicate operations of the calico printer, and its extensive consumption in the Navy, where its daily use by every sailor has almost entirely preserved that important class of men from the ravages of the scurvy during the late war, have rendered a plentiful supply of it an object of great and even of national

Some attempts have consequently been made to facilitate and increase the supply, by combining the acid with lime, in those countries where this valuable fruit is indigenous, that it might be imported into this country in a less bulky form, and in a state not liable to be injured by the voyage, or by keeping. An attempt of this kind Mr. P. informs us, was made in Sicily a few years ago by a person who went thither from England for the purpose of conducting the operation, and Mr. P. has had access to his correspondence on the subiect, with permission to avail himself of it for the public information. The undertaking, though apparently of very easy execution, seems to have been conducted with considerable difficulty; chiefly from the inconveniences which were met with in bringing the citrate into a perfectly dry state, and except this was accomplished, it was liable to heat, and was consequently not in a state fit for exportation. It was found necessary too, to send the carbonate of lime from England. and the operator met with unexpected embarrassments from the jealousy of the merchants, and the stupidity of the people, and their total inaptitude in all operations to which they had not been accustomed.

Mr. P. has given ample directions for the detection of any adulteration which may be practised on parcels of the liquid acid, and which those who consume it largely, will find extremely useful. Indeed, those who are interested in the preparation or employment of this acid on a large scale, will find much valuable information in this essay, which will repay them for the trouble of a careful and attentive perusal. It contains also several useful tables for ascertaining the proportion of pure acid, which may be obtained from different parcels of fresh juice, from which those who employ it in large quantities, and who have not much knowledge of

chemistry, may derive great assistance.

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The essay on the fixed alcalies, though less full and laboured than some of the others, contains a large proportion of useful information, communicated in a perspicuous manner. The different sources from which the alcalies are obtained, their employment in various manufactures, especially in the formation of glass and soap, the means of bringing them into a caustic state, the most direct methods of determining the proportion of alcali contained in the barilla of commerce, are stated in so clear and plain a manner, that a person not conversant with scientific chemistry, may readily avail himself of the information which the essay affords, and apply it to its particular object, or to his own individual pursuits. He very naturally laments, as every one must do, that our impolitic duties on salt, should, prevent us from availing ourselves of

supply of soda, by the decomposition of common salt, at a rate which would entirely supersede the importation of barilla; but it is lamentable to reflect how frequently capital and ingenuity are turned aside from their natural direction towards pursuits which would be equally beneficial to the public, and the individuals engaged in them, by the operation of injudicious taxation. Mr. P. has not entered minutely into a consideration of the processes which have been adopted with more or less success, for preparing the alcalies by the decomposition of those neutral salts of which they form the base, though it is a subject of considerable importance, and one upon which, his acquaintance with the practical operations of chemistry we should expect, would have enabled him to offer some judicious remarks.

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We have already trespassed so far on the time and attention of our readers, that we must bring our remarks to a close. Those who have occasion to consult or to study the work, will find in the other essays a pretty large proportion of pleasing The essay on specific gravity contains or useful information. very plain and ample directions for determining the specific gravity of bodies, whether solid or fluid; and that on edge tools contains some judicious discussion on the best means of giving the requisite temper to different cutting instruments. Mr. P. recommends the employment of metallic baths as the most accurate means of giving the requisite degree of temperature to the instrument to be hardened; and he has taken considerable pains to determine the melting point of different metallic mixtures of lead, zinc, and tin, that the artizan may be enabled to regulate the temperature of the bath in the most accurate manner to the precise object he has in view. Indeed we must do the Author the justice to say, that he has taken great pains to make his work really useful to those who are engaged in the different departments of useful industry on which he treats; and we believe he will be found to be with very few exceptions an intelligent and candid instructer. His style is easy, familiar, and free from affectation; and though there is reason to wish that the work had been more compressed, and that all the really useful notes had been incorporated into the respective essays to which they belong, yet Mr. P. has provided against one of the inconveniences which they necessarily produce, by a very copious and accurate index. Towards the poetical portion of the notes, we are inclined to be more severe, and to enter our protest against them entirely. We think they are misplaced in works such as this. The Plates of Apparatus, of which there are several in each volume, are executed with peculiar neatness and fidelity.

Art. V. The Siege of Corinth, a Poem. Parisina, a Poem, 8vo. pp. 90. Price 5s. 6d. Murray, 1816.

If Lord Byron can produce nothing better than Tales of this description, we care not how many of these we get from him. But with regard to the public, who are apt to mistake the recurrence of obvious traits of style, and similarity of sentiment, for the sameness of impoverished genius, and to grow, in consequence, fastidious, and at length unjust, towards the productions of their favourite, we fear that his Lordship will gain little reputation by such publications. It is requisite that an Author should, on every fresh appearance, exceed himself, in order to keep pace with the expectations of the public. Still each successive poem will be inquired for with eagerness, and it may be a matter of indifference to his

Lordship, what the many may think of their purchase.

We profess ourselves pleased to obtain productions like these from Lord Byron, provided he can do nothing better: and the repetition of similar publications, at uncertain intervals, would seem to betray in the Author a consciousness of not being able to achieve greater things. When, by a series of such performances as these, a writer has shewed us all he can do, we begin to be let into the secret of what he cannot accomplish, and this discovery must tend to lower the estimate of his genius, drawn from the promise of his first production. We do not scruple however to pronounce "the Siege of Co-"rinth," one of the most successful of his Lordship's efforts. The first ten stanzas are, indeed, tame, common-place, and wordy; the structure of many of the sentences is involved, and the thymes are not infrequently absolutely Hudibrastic. The character of the whole is feebleness, and we are led to conclude, either that these stanzas were supplied at the Printing office, or that Lord Byron purposely framed them of this unpretending description, in order to give more striking effect to the exquisite passage which they serve to produce.

The cold, round moon shines deeply down;
Blue roll the waters, blue the sky
Spreads like an ocean hung on high,
Bespangled with those isles of light,
So wildly, spiritually bright;
Who ever gazed upon them shining
And turned to earth without repining,
Nor wished for wings to flee away,
And mix with their eternal ray?
The waves on either shore lay there
Calm, clear, and azure as the air;

And scarce their foam the pebbles shook, But murmur'd meekly as the brook. The winds were pillow'd on the waves; The banners drooped along their staves, And, as they fell around them furling, Above them shone the crescent curling; And that deep silence was unbroke, Save where the watch his signal spoke, Save where the steed neigh d oft and shrill, And echo answered from the hill, And the wide hum of that wild host Rustled like leaves from coast to coast, As rose the Muezzin's voice in air In midnight call to wonted prayer; It rose, that chaunted mournful strain, Like some lone spirit's o'er the plain; Twas musical, but sadly sweet, Such as when winds and harp-strings meet, And take a long unmeasur'd tone, To mortal minstrelsy unknown. It seemed to those within the wall A cry prophetic of their fall: It struck even the besieger's ear With something ominous and drear, And undefined and sudden thrill, Which makes the heart a moment still, Then beat with quicker pulse, ashamed Of that strange sense it's silence framed, Such as a sudden passing bell Wakes, though but for a stranger's knell.' Stanza xi.

The poem ought to commence with these lines: what precedes them may be gathered from the sequel. Alp, a renegade, 'the convert of revenge,' is leading on the Turkish host against Corinth; a breach has been effected in the walk, and the morrow is fixed for taking the town by storm. The classic scenery of the tale adds considerably to the beauty and interest of the poem: the description of the snow-clad summit of Delphi, is particularly fine. The renegade, unable to sleep, is represented wandering on the beach, till he arrives within a carbine's reach of the leaguered city, and sees

'—the lean dogs beneath the wall Hold o'er the dead their carnival.'

The following lines describe, with horrible minuteness, the disgusting spectacle, which the Author assures us, he himself behold under the walls of the Seraglio at Constantinople. What follows is quite in the spirit of our Author; it is exceedingly touching.

Alp turn'd him from the sickening sight: Never had shaken his nerves in fight; But he better could brook to behold the dying,
Deep in the tide of their warm blood lying,
Scorch'd with the death-thirst, and writhing in vain,
Than the perishing dead who are past all pain.
There is something of pride in the perilous hour,
Whate'er be the shape in which death may lower;
For Fame is there to say who bleeds,
And Honour's eye on daring deeds!
But when all is past, it is humbling to tread
O'er the weltering field of the tombless dead,
And see worms of the earth, and fowls of the air,
Beasts of the forest, all gathering there;
All regarding man as their prey,
All rejoicing in his decay.

There is a temple in ruin stands,
Fashioned by long forgotten hands;
Two or three columns, and many a stone,
Marble and granite, with grass o'er grown!
Out upon Time! it will leave no more
Of the things to come than the things before!
Out upon Time! who for ever will leave
But enough of the past for the future to grieve
O'er that which hath been, and o'er that which must be:
What we have seen, our sons shall see;
Remnants of things that have passed away,
Fragments of stone, reared by creatures of clay!

pp. 27-28.

The scene between Alp and Francesca is equal to any thing of the sort that we remember to have read. We prefer giving as specimens, passages which will better admit of being detached from the story, but we are tempted to particularize the following lines in the description of the Venetian maid, as being eminently happy.

So deeply changed from what he knew:
Fair but faint—without the ray
Of mind, that made each feature play
Like sparkling waves on a sunny day:
And her motionless lips lay still as death,
And her words came forth without her breath,
And there rose not a heave o'er her bosom's swell,
And there seemed not a pulse in her veins to dwell.
Though her eye shone out, yet the lids were fixed,
And the glance that it gave was wild and unmixed
With aught of change, as the eyes may seem
Of the restless who walk in a troubled dream;
Like the figures on arras, that gloomily glare
Stirred by the breath of the wintry air.' p. 33.

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The simile in the last couplet, is pursued to too great a

length, a defect often chargeable on Lord Byron's otherwise beautiful similes.

Corinth is taken: a gallant remnant of the Venetian garrison retain for some time the possession of a church, but the gates yield at length to the overwhelming force of the Mussulman,' and murder and sacrilege go forward.

' Minotti lifted his aged eye,
And made the sign of a cross with a sigh,
Then seized a torch which blazed thereby;
And still he stood, while, with steel and flame,
Inward and onward the Mussulman came.

The vaults beneath the Mosaic stone Contained the dead of ages gone: Their names were on the graven floor, But now illegible with gore, The carved crests, and curious hues The varied marble's veins diffuse, Were smeared, and slippery—stained, and strown With broken swords, and helms o'erthrown: There were dead above, and the dead below Lay cold in many a coffined row; You might see them piled in sable state, By a pale light through a gloomy grate; But War had entered their dark caves, And stored along the vaulted graves Her sulphurous treasures, thickly spread In masses by the fleshless dead: Here, throughout the siege had been The Christian's chiefest magazine; To these a late-formed train now led, Minotti's last and stern resource Against the foe's o'erwhelming force.

' The foe came on, and few remain To strive, and those must strive in vain: For lack of further lives, to slake The thirst of vengeance now awake, With barbarous blows they gash the dead, And lop the already lifeless head, And fell the statues from their niche. And spoil the shrines of offerings rich, And from each other's rude hands wrest The silver vessels saints had blessed. To the high altar now they go; Oh, but it made a glorious show! On its table still behold The cup of consecrated gold; Massy and deep, a glittering prize, Brightly it sparkles to plunderers' eyes: That morn it held the holy wine, Converted by Christ to his blood so divine,

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Which his worshippers drank at the break of day,
To shrive their souls ere they joined in the fray,
Still a few drops within it lay,
And round the sacred table glow
Twelve lofty lamps, in splendid row,
From the purest metal cast;
A spoil—the richest and the last.

So near they came, the nearest stretched To grasp the spoil he almost reached, When old Minotti's hand Touched with the torch the train—
'Tis fired!

Spire, vaults, the shrine, the spoil, the slain,
The turban'd victors, the Christian band,
All that of living or dead remain,

Hurled on high with the shivered fane,
In one wild roar expired!
The shattered town—the walls thrown down—

The waves a moment backward bent—
The hills that shake, although unrent,

As if an earthquake passed—
The thousand shapeless things all driven
In cloud and flame athwart the heaven,

By that tremendous blast—
Proclaimed the desperate conflict o'er
On that too long afflicted shore.' pp. 49—52.

There are some obvious marks of carelessness in these lines. We know not how 'all that of dead remained,' could expire in that 'wild roar.' It may possibly occur also to some dry reader of his Lordship's minutely circumstantial detail of the catastrophe, to inquire whether the original record was furnished by an eye-witness.

The Poem concludes with a minute, and, in some parts, lowering description of the effects of the catastrophe. From the beginning of the eleventh stanza, however, to the close, the spirit of the poem is sustained in a style quite equal to any

of his Lordship's former poems.

We shall say little of "Parisina." It is not deficient in merit. The first stanza, which has appeared before in a different form, is very beautiful; and we might select several other fine passages. His Lordship will set us down among the fastidious objectors to such stories, which he deems sufficiently authorized by 'the Greek Dramatists and some of the best of our old English writers'. Our objections, however, originate rather in taste than respect for morality. The subject of the tale is purely unpleasing, and the manner in which it is treated, does not tend to reconcile us to it. The use which was made of facts or fables of this sort, by our old dramatic writers, was,

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to afford occasion for the development of character, or to impart a mysterious interest to the plot. In Lord Byron's poem of Parisina, there is neither plot nor character. The story is given in the nakedness of history. A hundred similar stories, as gross and as revolting, might doubtless be extracted from the domestic histories of feudal times: but what moral emotion-not to speak of any moral end-are they calculated to excite, when imbodied in confessedly beautiful poetry? A contemporary writer has adopted a story remarkably similar to that of Parisina, as the ground work of a poem recently published, and which we shall speedily notice; but, in this poem, the circumstances are such as conspire to affect us strongly with pity. and the impression left on the mind, is that of calm and gentle The impression left by Parisina, on the contrary, melancholy. if we may judge from what it made on our minds, is simply painful, involving a dissatisfaction with the issue of the story. with the conduct of the judge equally with that of the culprit; a shrinking sensation of horror at the details of the catastrophe, and a degree of surprise that a man with any pretensions to sensibility should have taken pleasure in realizing and expatiating, to so little moral purpose, on an obscure portion of history of so revolting a character. We do not now speak of the tendency of the narration, but only remark that the power of his Lordship's poetry is inadequate to overcome, or even considerably to temper, the painful impression which it leaves.

It is surely a singular circumstance, that Lord Byron has hitherto confined himself to the narration of crime, and to the delineation of vicious character. His spirited sketches, for they are after all sketches, exquisitely spirited and powerful, but nothing more, are all devoted to the illustration of the energies This certainly evinces either a great deficiency of taste, or very limited powers of conception. The gloomy phantasmagoria of his pencil, though differing in form and costume, are all of one character, or rather of one cast; for the sentiments and feelings which Lord Byron attributes to the personages in his poems, do not constitute them characters. There is no individuality of feature in his portraits. He describes admirably a certain class of emotions; but these should have been imbodied in character, rather than described; and his characters should have been developed by their actions. As there is no individuality in his conceptions, so there is little variety. It should seem that one strongly imagined personification had taken possession of the poet's mind, so that whatever be the scene or the story, this ideal actor is still the hero of the drama.

We are far from depreciating Lord Byron's genius. In energy of expression, and in the power of giving to words

the life and breath of poetry, we think he is almost unequalled by any contemporary. We conclude that his powers are circumscribed, from the way in which he has employed them, rather than from any other circumstance. To go down to posterity, however, as a great poet, something more than genius is requisite. There must be a high and holy ambition of legitimate fame; there must be a moral discipline of the intellect and feelings: the good, the true, and the beautiful, must, as ideal archetypes, occupy the visions of the poet; and he must be the partaker of an elevating and purifying faith, by which his mind may be brought into contact with "things unseen" and infinite. All these requisites must meet in a great poet; and there must be an appearance at least of approximation to them, in the character of any one that aspires to maintain, by means of his writings, a permanent influence over the minds and sympathies of his fellow men. There must be at least the semblance of virtue, or of the love of virtue.

"The Siege of Corinth" is dedicated to his Lordship's friend, J. C. Hobhouse, Esq.; and "Parisina" to S. B. Davies, Esq. We shall be very happy to see the next poem with which his Lordship may favour us, dedicated to Lady Byron.

Art. VI. Memoirs of Captain James Wilson, containing an Account of his Enterprises and Sufferings in India, his Conversion to Christianity, his Missionary Voyage to the South Seas, and his peaceful and triumphant Death. By John Griffin, 2d Edition revised, 8vo. pp. 230. Price 5s. 6d. Williams and Son, 1816.

AT a time when the nature of Christian conversion, and its necessity with respect to the baptized natives of a Christian country, have actually become the topics of a fresh theological controversy, a publication tending to illustrate both the reality and the efficacy of that moral change which is consequent upon a sincere reception of the Gospel, may be The conversion of Captain deemed particularly seasonable. Wilson-even the deriders of methodistic conversions would scarcely hesitate to admit of the appropriateness of the term in this instance—is another added to the mass of facts to which the assertors of the evangelical doctrine in question may appeal, as a practical evidence of its truth. But there were some circumstances attending the change in the Captain's character, which render it not indeed the more remarkable in itself, but the more intelligible to a large class of persons labouring under an unhappy prejudice on this subject. The distinct part which was allotted to human agency in the transaction, the confessedly rational means by which it was effected, and the unequivocal evidence which the subject of this moral transformation subsequently gave of a strong mind, a clear understanding, and a benevolent heart;—all these circumstances may procure for this instance of conversion a greater degree of attention than is usually bestowed on such cases, which, happening for the most part out of the actual observation of the individual, and being of a nature wholly foreign from his experience, are received with incredulity, if not with irreligious contempt. This is exactly such a case as the more honest doubter would require for his satisfaction, in reference to the

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genuine effect of religion upon the mind.

The early part of Captain Wilson's life was singularly eventful. The first part of the Narrative, detailing his achievements in India, his escape from Cuddalore, and his subsequent sufferings as Hyder Ally's prisoner, will not fail to tempt in many cases to a perusal of the Memoirs. The second part relates the steps by which the 'Indian Captain' was led to renounce his deistical principles. Mr. Griffin details the argumentative conversation which served to remove the Captain's principal objections to the Scriptures, and the reader will appreciate the judicious manner in which it was conducted by his biographer. It was not long before

'The minister perceived that though the Captain's reason was in favour of the mode of argument proposed, his feelings did not appear to be controuled by his judgement; and that his feelings were those of habit and of long continuance, but his reason was only the flash of conviction elicited by argument; he therefore thought it best to meet his wishes, and attempt to weaken his prejudices by removing his objections. This is an object worthy of consideration in all personal debates upon moral and religious subjects, for the feelings of most men are more reluctant to follow the dictates of the understanding, than the understanding is to follow the dictates of truth.' p. 45.

Cowper says,

' He has no hope that never had a fear.'

Perhaps we may as justly affirm

" He that ne'er doubted does not yet believe."

The objections which Captain Wilson adduced against Christianity, are, at any rate, such as must be familiar to the mind of even the most superficial thinker, and they have perhaps in an indistinct form troubled the imagination of persons wholly unaccustomed to intellectual inquiries. The present work may answer a valuable purpose, by shewing the way in which these and similar objections should be met, and in which the most unlettered Christian may safely combat the scientific infidel, and be enabled to furnish an intelligent reason of the hope that is within him. There is a large class of

religious persons, who are too apt to pay very insufficient attention to the evidences of Christianity, and who therefore are not only to be considered as deficient with respect to the quality of their faith, the only proper basis of which is sufficient evidence, but who would prove feeble defenders of the truths on which they rest their hope, even should their personal belief sustain the assaults of the sceptic. The infidel doubts and secret temptations to apostacy, with which many pious persons have confessed that they have been harassed, as by the injections of an evil spirit, would, no doubt, in many cases, have been obviated by a more intelligent acquaintance with the evidences of the Christian religion. And although the testimony of the conscience to a moral transformation in the powers and affections of the soul, is the only solid basis of personal hope in reference to our religious state, yet, it is not to be doubted that by a more diligent employment of the understanding on the grounds of religion, the unwavering firmness of persuasion, so conducive to peace and elevation of mind, would be much more effectually secured.

The conversation led Captain Wilson to a thoughtful consideration of the subject of religion; but he himself attributed the final decision of his mind, to a sermon he subsequently heard on the doctrine of predestination,-a subject which occurred to the preacher in course, but which, on the Captain's accidental entrance, he would gladly have changed. From the outlines of the sermon, which are given, it will be evident that there was nothing unsuitable in the subject, nothing in the Calvinistic exhibition of the doctrine, at variance with the conciliatory genius of the Gospel. We may still bestow on the means of the Captain's conversion, the term rutional; for it was still through the understanding that the appeal was successfully made to his conscience; the principal difference between conversational discussions and the arguments adapted to the pulpit, seems to be this, that the preacher is authorized to take his stand more particularly upon Divine testimony, and to bear witness to the truth, rather than to defend it. Whatever be the means employed, the inefficiency of the most powerful argument, and of the most impassioned persuasion, to secure an adequate effect, is displayed in too large a propertion of instances.

The third part of the Narrative recounts Captain W.'s Missionary Voyage to the South Seas, as commander of the Duff; and the fourth carries on the narrative to his death. We believe there have been few men more universally respected in private life.

We have made no reference to the Work as a literary

production, conceiving it to be perfectly unnecessary. Mr. Griffin has performed an acceptable service to the public; and it is one which displays his own character in a very advantageous light, as the judicious friend of the subject of his Memoir. The volume is a very suitable present for young persons.

Art. VII. Sermons; chiefly on Devotional Subjects. By the Rev. Archibald Bonar, Minister of Cramond. 8vo. pp. 504. Price 10s. 6d. Underwood, 1815.

WHEN the Discourses of a minister who publishes in the early part of his ministry, come under our notice, we judge it quite necessary to examine them with a considerable degree of critical nicety. If they will not stand this test, it is natural to inquire why the author obtruded them on the public, or yielded to the solicitations of friends, who, being partial to the compositions of their own esteemed pastor, imagine that the world would sustain a loss, were they withheld from the press. Yet, where the design of publishing has been obviously good and the matter is perfectly sound, we are reluctant to suffer our critical remarks to assume an air of what might be deemed over-rigid severity. It would seem that there is a kind of sanctity attaching itself to compositions of this description, which have probably already accomplished much good by their delivery from the pulpit; which may have been the means of building up the souls of many in faith and holiness, and in preparing for the enjoyment of a blessed eternity, the spirits of many just now made perfect. On the other hand we are fully aware, that considerations even of this cautious complexion, ought not to prevent our discharging with fidelity, the duty we owe to the public, and of expressing a decided opinion in regard to the superficiality which characterizes very many of our modern sermons, whose only merit, if it may be called merit, consists in their being free from sentiments positively inimical to Christian faith and holiness.

Indeed, it is not only to sermons that are barely not unsound, or to those which are intended to commend themselves by their much prettiness of sentiment and floweriness of diction, and which, by their deceitful semblance to religious truth, tend to neutralize and render inoperative all that it concerns man to know and to feel;—it is not only to such effusions as these that we object: there is yet another class, that highly deserve marked disapprobation, which, though they possess a greater degree of evangelical truth, are still more directly at variance with good taste, and are scarcely more favourable to the promotion of pious reflections. Discourses

of the nature to which we allude, possess no real vitality; they abound indeed with affected feeling, and aim at speaking the language of sensibility; but they are utterly incapable of exciting the slightest emotion. They exhibit an extravagant profusion of metaphor, and unceasing attempts at display.

We are well aware that these unpromising productions, are the compositions of young men, at least of men whose minds have never been disciplined by deep and continued reflection, and respecting whom it may be said that they give the public the best they have to offer. We would advise such persons not to expose unnecessarily their deficiencies in practical religion. nor indeed in literature and sound mental attainments; and before they assume by their publications the character of general teachers, to become deeply and experimentally acquainted with the practical bearings of that Divine religion into the nature of which they profess to instruct others. If they will expose their conceit and gratify their vanity at the expense of the highest interests of man, by presenting to their own congregations the mere prettinesses of sentimentality and the gaudiness of display, it is meet that they be admonished, if they have any regard to their character, or if they possess the smallest interest in the cause of religion, not to publish

harangues so empty and self-sufficient.

There is a class of preachers, who excuse the extreme superficiality of their pulpit discourses, by urging the necessity of using great plainness of speech; and who plead in their own behalf, the uneducated state of the people, and the importance of rendering religious instruction level to their comprehension. This plea might indeed be urged with some appearance of truth, were they who employ it, always as plain in their words as they are common place in their thoughts; were their style as destitute of all high-sounding epithets, as their discourses are in general of every thing but palpable truisms. This excuse we are convinced is often made as an apology for certain idle habits, which are radically injurious to the ministerial character, as well as wholly incompatible with self-improvement. Our fathers erred perhaps in secluding themselves too much from the world, in indulging a degree of abstraction from society, which diminished their usefulness; but certain we are, that they would regard the idle habits of some of their successors in the sacred office, as degrading to the ministry of the Gospel, and as directly opposed to the Apostolic injunction-" Meditate upon these things; give thyself " wholly to them; that thy profiting may appear to all."

We are ready to admit, that the minister ought not in every case to bear the sole blame of these idle habits. The people, by their unreasonable importunities, and the demands they are

too apt to make on the time of their pastor, must, in justice, bear much of the responsibility. Young ministers in particular are apt to fall into this snare. Desirous not to give offence, they yield to the intreaties of injudicious friends, resolving to be more industrious for the future; in the mean time, those habits are forming which increase the difficulty of carrying their resolutions into practice. Unaccustomed to rigorous study, the growing poverty of their thoughts soon appears in all their religious services; and those very friends whose cruel kindness has tended to deprive them of their spiritual and intellectual strength, are the first to complain of their superficiality. Could our advice weigh with our junior brethren, for the case is hopeless in regard to those who are advanced in life, we would earnestly exhort them to spend much of their time in the study, to persevere with undeviating consistency in refusing, unless it be in cases of infrequent occurrence, invitations to convivial parties, and on all occasions to let it appear in the pulpit, by their clear and judicious illustrations, and the warmth of their devotion, that the time spent in private was not spent in vain.

We are not even prepared to admit, without much qualification, the plea that is so frequently urged by indolent and superficial preachers, in extenuation of their conduct. For however they may profess to entertain a low opinion of the judgement of the multitude, we can assure them that they are as capable of understanding a well studied discourse, conveyed with correctness, plainness, and feeling, as a loose rhapsodical harangue; and that the one species of composition is much more likely to do them good than the other. It was one of the incidental benefits which the pulpit, in the days of our fathers, conferred on the people, that it improved their taste by gradually elevating their views to a higher standard than that to which of themselves they would naturally have conformed; but it has been reserved for our age to maintain that the Christian ministry is inadequate to such an end, and that the style of expression must be lowered to correspond to the whimsical taste of the multitude. It is only by recollecting the extensive influence of this maxim, that we can account for that rodomontade mode of preaching with which some congregations are amused, and which, we regret to say, is countenanced by some individuals who possess too much good sense not to perceive, if they would only reflect on the subject, its absurd and actually irreligious tendency.

These remarks may serve to introduce to the notice of our readers, with more interest, the excellent Sermons before us. The Author, now a veteran in the service of his Master, has, during the course of nearly forty years, " studied to shew himself approved unto God, a workman that needeth not

man whose ministry has been singularly blessed, whose habits of devotion and of self-denial would have done honour to the Apostolic age, whose literature and extensive biblical acquirements might have adorned a university, whose undeviating devotedness to the studies and duties connected with the sacred office, has never been surpassed, and who is withal so modest in his claims and unassuming in his manners, as to esteem others better than himself;—if such a man ought to be honoured and even venerated for his work sake, the Author of these Sermons is fully entitled to our hearty commendations.

Nor do we feel less disposed to give Mr. Bonar these commendations, simply as the Author of the Discourses before us, irrespective of his other claims to our approbation. While their chief design is obviously to promote personal religion, that design is conducted with much judgement, ability, and piety. He successfully enables his serious reader to behold more clearly the beauty and loveliness of that religion on which his hopes and his happiness depend.

With regard to the occasion of their publication, we are told in the preface,

them to the view of the public, that in the earlier part of his ministry, and vigour of his hife, he was afraid that such an intention, if indulged, might lead him to neglect what he owed to the spiritual circumstances of some part of his congregation. For some years past, however, it has pleased God to render him unfit for those private pastoral duties which he found pleasant to himself, and, he trusts, not useless to his people. Under the increasing infirmities of age, and of bodily weakness, he will not deny that he telt much satisfaction in revising, and preparing for publication, some of those Discourses which he had delivered to the different parishes in which he had laboured, as a memorial of the truths which he had maintained, and which he had found fully sufficient to impart strong consolation to his own mind, under the severest trials of life.'

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The subject of the first two Discourses is—The Love of God to Man: a subject which our Author treats with much warmth of energy, and beauty of illustration. It has enkindled some of his finest feelings, and has brought into action the glowing devotion of his heart. In addressing Believers, he says,

Review and recollect his past dealings, and you will perceive that Divine love has regulated the whole. How often has he multiplied his blessings, when you deserved and dreaded his wrath! How often have unexpected comforts gladdened your hearts, when you were foreboding days of darkness! How often has he turned your fears into joys, your wants into plenty, and your trials into victory!

Praise him for the past, and trust him for the future. If God is

love, and if you have taken him for your God, and have submitted to his grace and government, you may safely confide in him, whatever may be your affliction. He knows when to withhold, and when to bestow: and he who gives his people grace and glory,

will not withhold any real or necessary good.

He may visit with afflictions, both uncommon and unexpected; but what can you fear from the hand of infinite love? That gentle hand will not press too sore upon you; it will not afflict you too severely. It way administer medicine for your health; it may even correct you for your undutifulness; but still it is the hand of a loving Father; and while it chastens for your profit, it at the same time wards off those fiery darts of Satan, which would prove too agonising for your frail spirits, and also heals the painful wounds which sin has made. Though, therefore, in the despondency of your spirits, you sometimes say that your trials are severe, yet if this God, this faithful unchanging God, is your God, and you his real obedient people, you will sooner or later perceive so much love in these trials, that you would not, for a world, have wanted one ingredient in the bitterest of them. "Why art thou then cast down, O my nd why art thou disquieted in me? Hope thou in God; "for I shall yet praise him for the help of his countenance." pp. 19-21.

The subjects of the remaining sermons of this volume are, The Trials of Job, and his Consolations under them; Resignation; Trust in God; Self-dedication to God; The living Temple; Heaven prepared for the Righteous; The Everlasting Covenant; The strong Consolation; The Christian Journey; The Ascension of Christ; Christ's Unchangeableness. These several subjects are treated in a truly devotional and practical manner; and that man must be far advanced in faith and in knowledge, who is incapable of deriving from the varied illustrations of this volume, a fuller impression of the Divine loveliness of true religion, and of the happiness essentially connected with its experience. Our last extracts shall be from the Sermon on the Living Temple.

"If you beheld a large and stately building rising into view, where formerly there was nothing but rubbish and ruins; if you were informed that this building is highly important and necessary; that it had been planned by much deliberation and wisdom, and that no small expense was laid out in preparing materials for the work; you would naturally conclude, that since it is now begun, and daily advancing, that it will in due time be completed, provided the builder has skill, wisdom, power, and means, sufficient for finishing it.

Apply all this to the subject before us. The infinitely wise God our Saviour, who possesses all power in heaven and earth, has formed the grand design of recovering sinners from their apostacy, and of preparing them for heaven. He has, through the influence of his grace, begun to operate in the hearts of his chosen in the world, so that the outlines of their future perfections already appear:

and will he, after all this, withhold such farther degrees of grace. as are necessary to bring this good work to perfection? This would be inconsistent with his compassion and power. He has redeemed his people by his blood, and declares that he will keep what is committed to him; that having begun in them a good work, he will carry it forward to the day of Christ. He has pledged himself, by his engagements to his people in the covenant of grace; and these engagements he will fulfil by his dispensations and ordinances, with the co-operating influences of the Holy Spirit .- He carries his people forward to perfection, by the powerful energy and gracious influences of his Holy Spirit, working them to will and to do of his good pleasure, sealing them to the day of redemption, leading them into all truth, and sanctifying them more and more, until, by gradual advances in holiness they are fitted for the enjoyment of heaven. When fully prepared, he releases them from all the incumbrances of mortality, crowns them with immortal glory, and puts on the last stone with shoutings of grace unto it. Then, with increasing and everlasting joy, shall the universal song of triumph ascend to him who loved them, and washed them from their sins in his own blood, and redeemed them to God out of every kindred and brought them out of great tribulation, and conducted them to the land of uprightness, whence the Lord shall be the Light of the Temple and where the glory of the Lord will lighten it for ever and ever. pp. 220-224

We particularly recommend these Discourses to young ministers, as excellent models for their imitation. From them they will learn, that in order to be plain it is not necessary to be low or vulgar, nor to be common place in order to be understood; and that it is quite possible to convey to an ordinary audience, the result of much study, with simplicity, with taste, and with the warmth of the most elevated devotion.

We know that the Reviewer of a book has nothing to do with the life of its Author; nevertheless, it may be allowed us to remark, in concluding this article, that the living ensample of devotion and excellency which the life and conduct of Mr. Bonar have exhibited during the forty years that he has been invested with the sacred office, will considerably enhance the value and effect of these Sermons in the estimation of all who are acquainted with his character. The Church of Scotland will lose one of its ablest ministers and most distinguished ornaments, when this servant of Christ shall be called into the joy of his Lord.

Art. VIII. Memoirs of Lady Hamilton; with Illustrative Anecdotes of many of her most particular Friends and distinguished Contemporaries Second Edition, post 8vo. pp. 352. Price 10s. 6d. Colburn, 1815.

THE Author of this work commences it with remarking, that 'The maxim, "nothing should be said of the dead, "but what is good," though it has become proverbial by the frequency of repetition, and the benevolence it seems to inculcate, is too often made an excuse for error, and an apology for depravity. But whatever may be the nature or the extent of the rule, it never could have been intended to operate as an act of indemnity, to cover in oblivion the deeds of those who have endeavoured to loosen the foundations of morality by their principles, or to render vice attractive

by their example.'

The custom which prevailed among some of the ancients, of decreeing their departed great to undergo a regular trial, and proportioning their funeral honours to the praiseworthy actions of their lives, was more favourable to the excitement of laudable ambition, and the practice of sound morality, than the consideration of certain tender-hearted persons, who warmly object against the very idea of sitting in judgement on the memory of the departed, but who can yet very readily assist in murdering the reputation of the living. The fact is, that we are willing to acknowledge agreeable qualities which no longer stand in the way of our own claims upon admiration; and we can with much good nature, throw a veil of oblivion over faults, the exposure of which would not in any degree serve to promote our interest, even by the implied contrast of our own virtues.

But whence does this tenderness towards the fame of the dead take its rise? Is it from a solemn reverence for the awful tribunal to whose judgement their frailties are then committed? or from a fine and indefinable feeling that would not seem to take advantage of the absence of the departed? Or is it from that indifference to virtue, abstractedly considered, which renders vice a subject of reprobation only so far as the interests of those within its reach may be affected by its influence? Even on this paltry and sordid consideration, the volume before us might safely assert its claim to notice, though its own merits would afford it a more solid and advantageous foundation. The interests of the living are in many instances closely connected with the just censure of the dead. There are persons who have dazzled the world by the splendour of their attainments, but who have wrung, by ingratitude and neglect, the hearts with which their own ought to have beat in of those errors, are pointed out, as in the present instance, not with malevolence or treachery, but in the serious tone of exhortation, and with deep regret for their consequences, surely we ought not to forego the investigation of them, from the fear that we may find ourselves compelled to condemn where we would rather admire and venerate. Of all the social ties, those of conjugal love are the most important, the most delightful, the most holy; and when those ties are violently rent asunder, they are the virtuous who suffer acutely, and whose hearts are broken:—the vicious triumph, reck-

less of the misery they have occasioned.

That Lord Nelson, in consequence of his acquaintance with Lady Hamilton, subjected himself to the imputation of having practised this species of cruelty, cannot be denied; and those who deprecate the exposure of the disgraceful consequences depicted in the pages before us, might with equal reason censure certain ancient writers, for their 'malignity' in informing us that Mark Anthony was deceived, betrayed, and ruined by the wiles of Cleopatra. But, though we are unwilling to load feminine weakness with the heaviest condemnation, we cannot avoid thinking the unsuspecting warmth of heart which falls into the snare laid for it, far less criminal, than the cold-blooded vanity which deliberately spreads the net, and can anticipate with savage delight, the tears which will be shed by the innocent upon the capture of the victim. How far Lady Hamilton comes under this censure, it remains for us to examine.

The contemplation of Lady H.'s character and conduct, will forcibly exhibit how much the unbounded love of admiration is at variance with all that is worthy of being admired; and how incessantly it seeks for gratification at the expense of that modesty and simplicity, which give to either personal or

intellectual graces their most attractive charm.

Mrs. Hannah More has justly remarked, that 'If the education of women formerly resembled that of a confectioner, it is now too much like that of an actress.' The subject of these Memoirs is a striking example, that accomplishments which are acquired almost entirely for the sake of popular admiration, are very much at variance with the unassuming virtues of private life. The bloom of Lady Hamilton's life was passed in servitude, chiefly among fashionable families in London. Her biographer informs us, that 'To a figure of uncommon elegance, were added features perfectly regular, with a countenance of such indescribable sweetness of expression, as fixed the beholder in admiration. The airiness of her form gave a peculiar grace to her movements, and

'such was the flexibility of her limbs, that she might have been considered as a mountain nymph.' To these attractions were added a musical voice, a fine ear, a retentive memory, a turn for mimickry, and a passion for theatrical entertainments, which unfortunately for herself, she had frequent op-

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When we consider what are the manners of servants in fashionable families, and the examples set them by their spperiors, we must in candour acknowledge, that the youthful Emma, profusely endowed with personal graces and mental readiness, but totally uninstructed in religious principles or moral propriety, was placed in a situation of no common danger; when, therefore, we say that she soon became vain, bold, and licentious, we merely state the almost unavoidable consequences of the situation into which she was thrown. We will not follow her through those gradations from guilty splendour down to the sad state of unpitied misery, by which a life of meretricious notoriety is invariably marked. Necessity and despair compelled her to undergo degradations, which in themselves must be deemed justly merited punishment for the misconduct which reduced her to them. The painter and the sculptor profited by her necessities, to improve their art, by contemplating that beauty which, thus exposed, could no longer retain a charm for those who justly estimate purity of soul; and the sighs which her wounded modesty heaved, expired unheard, while her vanity listened with delight to the plaudits of admiration.

Among those persons who were most lavish in the language of adulation, and perhaps the sincerest in the feelings which dictated it, was Romney the painter, who at different times exhibited to the public the features of his favourite model, in the character of a Circe with her magic wand, a Calypso, a Magdalen, a wood nymph, a Bacchante, the Pythian priestess on her tripod, a Saint Cecilia, and as a personification of Sensibility. Our Author reprobates in terms of virtuous indignation, the attempt on the part of Mr. Hayley, to throw a veil of sentimental delicacy over Romney's attachment to the subject of these Memoirs. The biographer of Cowper, appears indeed but ill employed in eulogizing the fine feelings and the social affections of a libertine. Romney was more true to nature in depicting Lady Hamilton in the character of Circe, than under the personification of Sensibility. When we recollect that she could voluntarily and carelessly forego the caresses of her own children, we cannot look with much delight upon her nursing the sensitive plant, though any incongruity between the sign and the thing signified, could not be expected to present itself to Romney, who, we are told by

his biographer, delighted in the innocent endearments and opening graces of infancy, and possessed a heart painfully alive to the dictates of tenderness; but who could entirely abandon the excellent and unoffending wife of his youthful choice, and his infant family, lest his acknowledgement of them should

interfere with his advancement in his art.

About this time Lady Hamilton formed an acquaintance with Mr. Greville, nephew to the gentleman from whom she afterwards derived her title and her importance in society, and well known in the higher circles for the elegance of his address. Surrounded by men of genius and of polished exterior, it may easily be imagined, that her understanding and her manners daily exhibited proportionate improvement. Her taste, particularly in music and in painting, rapidly developed itself, and her skill in recitation enabled her frequently to fill up those languid intervals, which familiar intercourse is sure to give birth to when unsupported by esteem. To defer, however, is not to prevent. Her connexion with Mr. Greville came to the end common to such connexions; it died the natural death of satiety: but he with more consideration for the interests of his mistress, than for the honour of his relation, contrived to introduce her to Sir William Hamilton, under appearances so favourable, that his admiration of her terminated in marriage. From this time Lady Hamilton's ambition seems to have taken a wider flight, and for the exhibition of abilities like hers, the intriguing and dissipated court of Naples was an appropriate sphere. The character of Sir William Hamilton is delineated in these pages with great impartiality; his choice of a wife is excused on account of the deception practised upon him by those whom his own integrity prevented him from suspecting; his taste in the fine arts is acknowledged, but his devotion to them at a time when the high duties of his station demanded all his attention, is justly condemned; more especially as he seemed occasionally to be influenced by the feelings of a merchant or a broker, rather than of a scholar and an antiquary.

The commencement of Lady Hamilton's acquaintance with Lord Nelson, the disgust with which the native honesty and noble simplicity of his soul at first recoiled from the associates with whom she was surrounded, and the dissipation of her habits, are detailed in a plain and undisguised manner. The gradual subjugation of the energies of a hero by the flatteries of a syren, cannot be contemplated without pain. The errors of political conduct, to which the influence of Lady Hamilton gave rise at Naples, are forcibly represented; and surely if it be of any importance in the history of human actions, to trace back consequences to their causes, such a representation

must be highly instructive. The execution of Carraccioli, on board Nelson's ship, is severely reprobated. Whatever advocates that arbitrary assumption of power may have found in the convenient doctrine of expediency, we believe there is no one who will venture to admire Lady Hamilton, for going upon deck to witness the miserable end of this aged nobleman, whose life was terminated by his being hanged at the yard-arm; the disgrace of which mode of death was so terrible to him, that as a last entreaty he earnestly pleaded to have it altered, but he pleaded in vain! Let us never again be told of Lady Hamilton's sensibility. We must own that this odious proof of the torpor of feeling, which is often found in conjunction with levity of conduct, and which not even her admirers have attempted to controvert, removes all incredulity from our minds respecting other cruelties which she is accused of passively witnessing, and in some instances even of instigating. darker the scene becomes, the more reluctant we are to dwell upon it. The biographer himself assumes an increased severity of tone, when he describes the injuries inflicted on the peace of Lady Nelson and her relations, by one who could smile, and murder while she smiled. Among her very few good qualities, he remarks that her filial duty was conspicuous. He advocates the claims of that child who was left by Nelson to his country; and who, there is too much reason to fear, was the offspring of that intimate acquaintance with Lady Hamilton, which some, too virtuous themselves to suspect vice in others, actually believed to be the purest description of platonic attach-

The contemplation of the close of Lady Hamilton's days, at Calais, to which place she fled for refuge on her liberation from the King's Bench, is calculated to excite reflections of a very melancholy nature. At this trying moment, however, the affection and duty she had ever shewed her mother, were brought back to her own bosom, by the soothing attentions of her child, who waited upon her throughout her illness with undeviating affection.

When, at last, she found there were no hopes of a recovery, she employed the little time that remained in preparing such documents and memorials as might be of service to this interesting object, who was now about to encounter the rude storms of the world, without a relation or a guardian to take a tender interest in her welfare. This consideration pressed heavily on the mind of the dying parent, who manifested the most affectionate concern for her child, by endeavouring to soothe her mind, and to allay her fear, giving her the best advice for her future conduct, and settling all her affairs in such a manner as appeared best adapted to secure the property which had been set apart for her use, from any attempts that might be made to injure the rights of the orphan and the

destitute. A sealed packet was also carefully entrusted to her hands, but with strict injunctions that it should not be opened till the attainment of her eighteenth year; which corresponded also with the particular settlement in the codicil added to the will of Nelson, providing for the maintenance of this very child under the denomination of his adopted daughter." pp. 347, 8.

Our biographer fully acquits Lady Hamilton of any share in the infamous publication of Lord Nelson's letters. The impartiality which he displays in every part of his instructive performance, makes us willing to dismiss him in the words which Shakspeare puts into the mouth of one not much more injuriously treated than the amiable person whose interests ought inseparably to have been connected with Lord Nelson's, whose affections were most aggrieved by his desertion:

After my death I wish no other herald, No other speaker of my living actions, To keep my honour from corruption, But such an honest chronicler.

Art. IX. 1. Jonah. The Scatonian Prize Poem, for the year 1815: By James W. Bellamy, M. A. of Queen's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 28. Price 5s. 6d. Taylor and Hessey. 1815.

2. Jonah. a Poem. By Edward Smedley, Junior. 8vo. pp. 24. Price 3s. 6d. Murray: 1815.

WE had occasion, in reviewing the Seatonian prize poem for the year 1914, to notice the difficulties which the candidates have to surmount in producing, on a given subject, and that nominally a scriptural one, a poem possessing either eriginality or interest. The present productions may serve to exemplify those observations.

Mr. Bellamy has obviously bestowed considerable pains on the poising of his cadences, and the burnishing of his rhymes: there is a dazzling semblance of poetry in his diction: but we look in vain for any display of fancy, that might compensate for his injudicious deviations from the simplicity of the scriptural narrative. The character of Jonah, we are sorry to remark, is inappropriately delineated, and his history is badly narrated.

The following magniloquous lines are substituted for the scripture account of the prophet's fatal voyage. The impressive circumstances of the lot falling upon Jonah, his confession to the mariners, and his directing them to cast him overboard, are wholly omitted.

Launch'd on the main, the seamen woo the gale
To fan, with favouring breath, the swelling sail:
Bounds the light bark the foaming billows o'er,
And wings her way to Tarshish' sheltering shore.
Short blew that prosperous breeze: thick clouds arise,

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Scattering their deepening horrors o'er the akies; Loud and more loud the rattling thunders spread, Wild howl the winds above the Prophet's head; Fleet darts the lightning's flash athwart the gloom, Gilds the wide waste, and lights the watery tomb; High rides the bark where mountain billows roll, Then seeks with headlong prow the nether pole.

Rous'd by the storm, that thunder'd long and loud,
As the full peal of Sinai's fiery cloud,
There on the deck the trembling Jonah stood,
Wild with affright and eyed the yawning flood.
Hope fled the guilty breast—Remorse was there,
That bids his victim wake but to despair:
E'en Mercy seem'd to spurn him; Vengeance came
Exultant, arm'd with sword of cherub flame,
And thron'd in terrors on the airy steep,
Hurl'd the red bolt, and dash'd him to the deep.
But from those depths, with Hades near to view,
Leviathan the recreant prophet drew;
His guard commission'd by divine command,
To bear the wanderer to his destin'd strand.' pp. 7, 8.

This may suffice for a specimen of the performance. We cannot dismiss Mr. Bellamy, however, to whom, as devoted to the Christian ministry, poetical fame must be a very subordinate object, without one word of severer animadversion, in reference to the passage beginning,

'Ye cheerless blossoms fade, that coldly spread.'

These lines appear to be a palpable, but indifferent, imitation of some of the finest lines in the "Pleasures of Hope," but they have this further disadvantage; that the total negation of all peculiarly Christian sentiment, the omission of any reference to the dictates of Revelation on the subject of the world to come, is, in a poem professedly founded on Old Testament history, particularly offensive and reprehensible. It indicates, what is obvious from the extract given above, that the poet neither felt nor properly understood his subject. Jonah was indeed a Jew, but if, as our Author has properly represented him, though he makes no use of the reference, he was 'a type of Israel's King', it is not to be supposed that he was unacquainted with the Christian doctrine of immortality, as 'brought to 'light' by the Gospel. Such lines as the following are destined of all propriety in a poem on a sacred subject.

No—beneath Heaven's firm shield, in peril's hour He treads the tomb, and braves oblivion's power, Smiles at blind fate, and hails with rapture high The morning star of immortality. p. 13.

We are much better pleased with Mr. Smedley's performance. Not half of his poem, indeed, is occupied with the subject of Jonah; and he must therefore be considered as having eluded, rather than surmounted, its difficulty as a theme for poetry. Still, in the brief and rapid narrative which he gives of the history, more of the circumstances recorded in Scripture, are included, than in Mr. Bellamy's diffuse description.

The poem commences with the destruction of Nineveh, as predicted by Nahum, Zephaniah, and Jonah; and a very judicious use is made of the bold and vivid language of prophecy. The transition is then made to the story of Jonah, in the

following lines :-

4 Yea! Nineveh is fallen!—but not before The Lord had shewed her that his wrath was sore: Not till his finger pointed out the thread By which the vengeance quiver'd o'er her head. There spake the son of Cushi in his might; There roll'd the thunders of the Elkoshite; And there Amittai's trembling seed obey'd The call reluctantly; as if afraid Of man, yet fearless to endure the wrath Of Heaven, which follow'd blasting on his path. Vainly he wander'd, for the Spirit of God Was strong within him wheresoe'er he trod; Whether in Sephor's many-peopled street He thought to mingle his forgotten feet; Or fled the presence which his steps pursued In Asmon's never-beaten solitude. Nor less when hid within the galley's side He slumber'd, careless of the raging tide, Saw not the mighty tempest, nor the wave With hundred mouths wide yawning to the grave. Then fear was on the seamen, and despair Hung on their lips in unaccustom'd prayer; They sought the guilty whom such wrath pursued By lot, and tried their divinations rude. The hand of God was with them, and they knew The offender; him unwillingly they threw A willing victim to the gulph, which clos'd Above him, and in calmness then repos'd.

'Strange was the mystery which the Lord prepar'd To save the Prophet whom his mercy spar'd. Three days, alive, and yet as in the grave, He died new death each moment; and the wave Unceasingly he heard about him roll, Depth above depth, encompassing his soul. There the dank sea-weed round his living head Wrapped its green folds, like shroud upon the dead. Earth with her bars inclos'd him; ever down, Down to the mountain bottoms he was thrown,

The flood-springs, and the eternal roots which bound
The innermost secrets of this apper ground.
Three days in bitterness of death he lay,
The fourth the monster yielded up his prey.' pp. 5—7.

The remainder of the poem is devoted to the death and entembment of "a greater than Jonah," of which the prophet's story is considered as a typical representation. This part of Mr. Smedley's production is entitled to no ordinary praise: it is every way worthy of a Christian poet. The portraits of the Mother of our Lord, the Magdalene, and the beloved disciple, are very finely conceived, and in strict harmony with the Gospel narrative. On perusing these lines, we felt no disposition to retract what we have remarked respecting the difficulty of treating scriptural subjects, but they convinced us still more strongly, that they are, after all, the finest which can employ the imagination, when no attempt is made, by the injudicious addition of poetical ornaments, to fill up the outline of inspired history, at the expense of its truth and severe simplicity.

We must make room for the concluding lines in the poem.

So they—but he for whom they mourn'd had gain'd The limit of this being, and remain'd In that unknown, which never mortal eye Sees till it closes on mortality. Three days his body slept, and the cold tomb Held him within its fearful bed of gloom. Death hover'd over him, but on his face The foulness of his touch could leave no trace, Nor did his body see corruption; there Sate living freshness, and the tranquil air Of a light slumber, when high visions fill The fancy, and exalt to Heaven the will; As if embalm'd by his divinity, When death began, his body ceas'd to die; And when his earthly nature did not dwell Within, the unearthly purified the shell; Adorn d it for his triumph, and resum'd The veil of flesh more holy since entomb'd.

The third day comes—Oh! not within the grave
Look for his body who has died to save;
Seek not in earth the immortal flesh which holds
A Spirit as immortal in its folds.
Won is the Paradise to sin refus'd;
The bruised heel the venom'd head has bruis'd;
Gain'd is the victory now, the battle done;
To us the living and the dead are one.
Lo! on the ruins of the first there stands
A nobler temple, fashion'd without hands;
And blazon'd on its everlusting shrine
Beams to our eyes the Prophet Jonah's sign.

- Ant. X. 1. Report together with the Minutes of Evidence, and an Appendix of Papers, from the Committee appointed to consider of Provision being made for the better Regulation of Madhouses in England. Ordered by the House of Commons to be printed, 11th July, 1815. Each Subject of Evidence arranged under its distinct Head, by J. B. Sharpe, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. Reprinted for Baldwin and Co. 47, Paternoster-Row. 8vo. pp. 399. Price 13s. 1815.
- A Letter addressed to the Chairman of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed to enquire into the State of Madhouses; to which is subjoined Remarks on the Nature, Causes, and Cure of Mental Derangement. By Thomas Bakewell, Author of A Domestic Guide in Cases of Insanity," and Keepe of Spring Vale Asylum, near Stone, Staffordshire. pp. 100 Stafford. 1815.
- 3. Practical Hints on the Construction and Economy of Pauper Lunatic Asylums. Including Instructions to the Architects who offered Plans for the Wakefield Asylum, and a Sketch of the most approved Design. By Samuel Tuke. pp. 55. York, 1815.
- 4. Observations on the Laws relating to Private Lunatic Asylums, and particularly on a Bill for their alteration which passed the House of Commons in the Year 1814. 8vo. pp. 112. price 3s. 6d. Conder, London. 1816.

AFTER a sanguinary conflict, especially when it has been of unusual and unexpected severity, as in the case of the victory of Waterloo, we hear with horror of numbers, who, although not the immediate victims of death on the field where they had fought and bled, nevertheless, subsequently lose their limbs and their lives for want of timely medicinal aid, and in consequence of that pressure and hurry in the business of healing, which directly succeed to the business of slaying. But the feelings which are excited by this consideration, must sink very low in comparison of those which are occasioned by the reflection, that mental soundness, and mental life, if we may so express it, are frequently lost for want of opportunity and of pecuniary resources, to preserve them. How many wretched beings do the wards of a public lunatic asylum enclose, who, having been once as we are, are now reduced to a state of worse than brutal ferocity, uttering horrid blasphemies, and denouncing malignant menaces on all who pass by; but who, had their circumstances been such as to command the exercise of tenderness and skill equal to the exigencies of their cases, might now have been taking their places in the social circle formed by sympathy and affection, thinking, and feeling, and acting, like ourselves! In the great round of human misery and wo, there cannot surely be found any case that comes at all near to this in dreadful and heart-appalling interest.

That this statement is not a figment of the imagination, but a recital of facts, has been repeatedly asserted with all the confidence of conviction; and if such be the shocking state of things, in reference to lunatic hospitals, no wonder that in this age of reformation and of public spirit, the attention of the legislature should have been called to the consideration of this momentous inquiry — Whether the circumstances and treatment of lunacy are susceptible of melioration and amendment.

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This question has indeed been recently agitated in the British Senate, with an earnestness and interest which will command

the admiration of posterity.

The labours of Mr. Rose and his associates, (as is well conserved in one of the pamphlets before us) were labours of simple humanity and benevolence unmixed with party feeling, and of too partial an influence to produce them fame. While the unhappy objects of their compassion are shut out, perhaps for ever, from the world, and generally unable to express or even to feel gratitude. May they live (adds the writer) to receive the only reward they appear to aim at or desire, in the certainty that their completed deliberations and exertions have removed all the evils which occasioned them.

Before we proceed to a more detailed account of this investigation and its results, we shall say a few words on the recently much agitated inquiry, which immediately and obviously arises out of the preceding one, and which was repeatedly urged by the members of the Committee of investigation in the course of their individual examinations It is this—Whether is insanity under the control of remedial agents, in the same manner as are those maladies which are more properly and strictly regarded affections of the bodily frame? Is madness to be cured by medicine? The remarkable discrepancy which was displayed before the Committee, in reference to this very important question, must have necessarily excited some degree of scepticism, or at least of uncertainty, in the minds of those who entered upon the inquiry with anxious but unprejudiced minds. We are told by one person, a man of unquestioned talents and extensive experience, that he considers vomiting rather injurious than beneficial in cases of insanity; another, of equal experience, and of great name, stated his dependence upon the medicinal power of emetics; and in this opinion he is countenanced by a recent writer of great merit on the subject of mental affections. One physician, who has directed his knowledge and attention principally to these unhappy affections, approves generally of venesection; a second, similarly circumstanced, describes this practice, as fraught with extreme danger. Purgatives are the sole dependence of some, alteratives and buthing. Some say little is to be done by any curative means, others, with even greater confidence, assert that insanity is the most remedial of all the maladies to which man is heir.

The fact is, we believe, that a great deal of this diversity of entiment and opinion, has arisen in consequence of regarding the subject in too empirical a manner. Medical men talk of coring lunacy, as the vulgar speak of curing a cough. Indeed, while a generic term is made to include so many varieties, in relation to the causes upon which derangement depends, it cannot in strict propriety be made a question, whether insanity is, or is not curable. When a man receives a sabrewound on his skull, and consequently loses his senses, we are in the habit of considering the case without cure, from a general feeling founded upon obvious truth, that as an organic lesion has here been the occasion of the deranged state of the intellect. it cannot be set to rights, because it is not within the compass of medicine or management to re-organize. Again, if part of the brain is annihilated by accident or disease, we cannot restore the lost material, nor by consequence its particular functions; or if a tumour grow in the interior of the encephalon, the derangement of functions to which it gives rise, is irremediable. masmuch as the cause of the derangement is itself untangible. Now, our knowledge of sentient and intellectual faculties, as connected with structure, is so extremely limited; the knife of the anatomist does so very little in clearing away the obscurities which hang over sentient organization, that we may conceive of alterations quite as effective, and quite as permanent, as those just supposed, although they may not, even by any artificial means, be capable of being detected by our senses; and, in that case, the mental malady might be quite as hopeless, in respect to any prospect of recovery, as in instances where it has been dependent upon such palpable causes as obviously to place it out of the possibility of cure. Disordered intellect, therefore, having in its display to do with the sentient system, of which our knowledge is so confined, cannot be calculated upon, either in respect to its essential nature, or any probability of advantage to be derived from treatment, with any thing like the accuracy with which we predicate the remedial nature or fatal tendency of mere bodily ailment.

Although it is not within the scope or intention of the present paper, to pursue the subject of insanity in the way of regular dissertation, we shall, we trust, be excused for adverting to one particular feature in the phenomena of deranged intellect, which we conceive has not been sufficiently recognized or dwelt upon, in investigations relative to the rationale of mental alienations. We allude to the alternate, and, as it were vicarious manner, in

which diseases of the body and of the mind oftentimes succeed to, and take place of each other. In a pamphlet which Mr. Tuke some time since published, there is one remarkable example of this kind, which, from its very interesting nature, deserves recital.

A young woman, who was employed as a domestic servant by the father of the relater, when he was a boy, became insane, and at length sunk into a state of perfect idiocy. In this condition she remained for many years, when she was attacked by a typhus fever, and my friend, having then practised for some time, attended her. He was surprized to observe as the fever advanced, a development of the mental powers. During that period of the fever whom others were delirious, this patient was entirely rational. She recognized in the face of her medical attendant the son of her old manter, whom she had known so many years before; and she related many circumstances respecting his family, and others, which had happened to herself in her earlier days. But alas! it was only the gleam of reason; as the fever abated, clouds again enveloped her mind. She sunk into her former deplorable state, and remained in it till her death, which happened a few years afterwards.

Although this case must be considered as very extraordinary, the records of medicine are not wanting in instances of that kind of succession and alternation of mental and bodily disorder to which we have above referred, and of which the example just narrated, is but a remarkable and forcible illustration. Dropsical and pulmonary affections have been seen to yield, in order to make way, in a manner, for the introduction of insanity; while this last has been expelled, in its turn, by the supervention and return of the original complaint. There is another circumstance, also, which is common to mental alienations, and which, indeed, is of so frequent occurrence, as to have been often noticed by many persons who were not professional observers; we allude to that sudden and transient restoration of the intellectual faculties, which not unfrequently immediately precedes bodily dissolution. After the mind has, to all appearance, been for years extinct, it bursts out from its corporal confinement, and casts a parting glance at the surrounding scene.

These facts demonstrate a frequent connexion between allments of the body, and of the mind, as intimate as it is inscrutable; and serve to shew that the human frame may be subject to such varieties of condition as to be productive of mental hallucination, although the precise nature of such state shall elude every research of the pathologist. As we are ignorant, then, of the nature, we must also be ignorant of the extent and probable duration of the morbid change. When, therefore, we find, as in some of the publications before us, individuals asserting with confidence the curable nature of insanity, and hinting, that had this and that patient been under their care, the hallucinations would have disappeared, we cannot avoid regarding their assertions and intimations, as partaking in a large measure of empirical presumption. Which among them could have anticipated the circumstances and temporary cure of the idiotic girl above referred to? and who is there that could unravel the intricacies of the case by any ascertained physiological

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But there is another consideration, and it is one of a very momentous and imperative nature, which has still more to do with the late investigation; it is this-whether, even in cases of incurable lunacy, it be not possible to effect by conciliation and kindness, what has hitherto been often essayed to be done by coercion and restraint?—Is a madman out of the pale of humanity?—Is he, on account of the suspension of reason, to be treated as if the rational faculty were not obscured. but extinct? To these most important queries such replies have been made as to implicate in their tendency, the conduct and character of several receptacles for the insane; it appeared, therefore, to be the duty of an enlightened legislature to interfere further in behalf of this most afflicted portion of the hu-That interference, as we have above observed, has been candidly, rationally, and humanely made, and the publications before us are some of its consequences.

The Legislature has had, however, a still further object in view, than that of securing an appropriate treatment, and as much comfort as is consistent with their situations, to those who are already and properly confined in consequence of mental disorder. Its aim has been directed towards placing a more effectual barrier, than the act already in force has been found to provide, against the commission of the enormous crime of unnecessary confinement; a crime which, to the eternal disgrace of human nature, has not only been in many instances con-

ceived, but actually committed.

We shall not detain our readers with any very copious extracts from the published reports of the Committee of investigation, especially as they have already been before the public in the prints of the day. We shall therefore confine ourselves to the selection of one or two examinations, which will serve to shew to those who may not hitherto have had their attention drawn to the subject, the great good that has already been effected by the business having been brought before the consideration of Parliament. The Honorable Henry Grey Bennet, himself a member of the Committee; presents to it the following evidence:—

<sup>&#</sup>x27;I visited Bethlem some years ago, and was then very much struck with the condition in which the patients were; there appeared Vol. V. N. S. A a

to me to be the greatest coercion in general use; numbers were confined to the wall, fastened to benches and tables, and many of the patients were almost in a state of nudity: I visited it again las year in company with Mr. Wakefield, Mr. Lambton, and one or two other gentlemen; I found not so many patients in the same state of nakedness and restraint as at my last visit, but in the women's wards up stairs, there were many of those unfortunate people chained to the wall in a small room, some of whom had been so chained for years during the day; the smell and dirt of the room were in the highest degree offensive; amongst those persons was a woman of the name of Stone, who was formerly a governess in a respectable family, evidently a person of some accomplishments, who was chained to the wall, though she did not appear to be at that time or was stated ever to have been a furious maniac. There was also a woman confined in a cell, chained to the wall at the end of the gallery; she had been so confined for several years, was in a state of furious agitation, and her voice and cries could be heard in all that part of the hospital. I saw also Norris; the iron apparatus in which he had been confined was then removed; but the chains which fatened the neck of the patient to the iron stanchion as well as the leg-lock, were still used.

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Norris stated, that he was fully aware he was a dangerous person; that he should be sorry to be permitted to walk unmanacled in the gallery; but if he could be prevented from doing others any mischief, which, if he was not provoked he should not attempt to do, he should consider the permission of taking that exercise a great indulgence; he added also, that he had made repeated complaints against the mode of confinement in which he bad been for to many years; but that he was now treated like a Christian, and that he felt himself quite comfortable. He particularly alluded to the plessure he felt in being able to sit down on the edge of his bed; he was employed in reading the news-paper, and he asked me many quetions on the subject of politics, in which he appeared to take the greatest interest. I visited Bethlem, on the 27th of May last, in company with other members of the House of Commons, Lord Lacelles, Mr. William Smith, Mr. Duncombe, Mr. Frankland Levis, and Mr. Sturges Bourne. The change that had taken place in the appearance of the patients in the Hospital was most striking; on the men's side, no man was chained to the wall; only one was in bed, and he was ill; the patients were mostly walking about in the gallery, and the whole Hospital was clean and sweet. On the women's side, two only, when we entered the Hospital, were chained by the hand. Miss Stone, who had been confined in the hospital for secent years, three of which she had been chained during day-time to the wall, wrapped up in a flanuel gown, was sitting by the fire dressed like a woman, employed in needle-work, and tolerably rational; she peared chearful, and contented, and most grateful to the Matron, accompanied us during our visit, for the change which had taken plat in her situation.'

The woman who was confined at the end of the gallery the year before, in that violent state of irritation above mentioned, was now

released, and was 'walking about the gallery, apparently tranquil; she repeatedly thanked the Matron for her kindness, and said it was owing to that kindness that she was in the composed and comfortable state in which we found her. I have no doubt that the change which is so visible in the condition of the hospital, and in the mental improvement of the patients, has arisen from the different treatment that they have received from the new Steward, Mr. Wallett, and the new Matron, Mrs. Forbes. To any one who remembered the apparent neglect with which, the preceding year, these unfortunate persons were treated, this change in their condition was most consolatory.

In answer to a further question from the Committee, whether he did not consider the iron apparatus worn by Norris to be unnecessarily heavy, Mr. Bennet replies,

From what I have seen of furious maniacs in other hospitals and places of confinement, I should have no hesitation in saying that it was a mode of restraint unnecessary and unwarranted. It has always appeared to me (he adds) from what I have seen of Bethlem, that the restraint was used there more from feelings of revenge than for purposes of medical cure.'

The above evidence is a document of too unequivocal a nature, which establishes the fact that much abuse has existed; it serves at the same time to prove, beyond the possibility of dispute, that much may be done, with safety to the attendant and advantage to the patient, by kindness and conciliatory treatment. The only remaining inquiries, then, at issue, are, by what means this treatment can be best secured to the unhappy sufferers under mental derangement; and what are the best measures to which the Legislature can have recourse in order to prevent the practice of confining individuals upon groundless and false

pretences.

It was a natural order of proceeding, in reference to the first particular, to establish an inquisition into the condition and usages of those several receptacles for the insane, that were already in existence; and by collating and contrasting their respective advantages and disadvantages, to come to such conclusions as should serve for a guide to future proceedmgs. Accordingly, the printed reports exhibit the interior of a great number of lunatic asylums, in some of which, as in the larger and more public establishments, were unveiled the most shocking mismanagement and the most culpable neglect. It is, however, gratifying to learn, from the accounts of others, that a conscientious skill and persevering humanity, were employed, to effect one of the most momentous objects that can engage the energies of man. An account of a well-regulated establishment, called the Retreat, near York, instituted and conducted by the Society of Friends, has already been published, and our readers will hear with great satisfaction that this asylum has many rivals both in exterior and internal ad-

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Those institutions appear to be the most effectual in promoting the well-being of their inmates, in which attention is given to the following particulars. A due separation and classification of the patients according to their sex, their circumstances in life, and the degree of derangement to which they are subject; kindness joined with firmness on the part of the superintendents, with an endeavour, on the part of the superior officers, to excite the esteem and affection of the unhappy individuals over whom they are placed; such a construction of houses, as will ensure sufficient proximity of keepers and patients, and at the same time afford room enough for the latter, these apartments being as free from gloom and prison-like appearance, as is consistent with the nature of the establishment; ventilation without an undue exposure to the inclemencies of the weather; light, nourishing, and wholesome diet, to be regulated according to circumstances, both in respect of quantity and quality; cleanliness both in act and in habit; and lastly, a judicious regulation of mental and bodily exercise.

For the purpose of shewing the very great good that may be done by a well regulated system of occupation, we shall be easily excused for transcribing the following extract from the examination of Mr. Finch, the keeper of an excellently planned and well conducted asylum at Laverstock, near Salisbury. The Committee ask this gentleman, whether the patients under his care are accustomed to take much exercise. In reply,

he says,

A great deal of exercise; I think it necessary to health; I was led to this remark by observing a few years ago that my pauper patients recovered in a greater number than those in a better situation in life, which I attributed to their being employed in my garden, in working, digging, &c.

"Is it your opinion," the Committee go on to say, "that the employment of the body contributes in a great degree to the resto-

ration of the health of the mind?" " It is."

"Is it your practice to allow patients of all descriptions, the more opulent as well as the paupers, to work and employ themselves in your garden?" "I allow them to work if they should be so inclined; but as I could not enforce that upon my superior patients, whose habits of life are not congenial with it, I substituted amusements to supply its place; such as bowling-greens, cricket, billiards, and all the different amusements which act upon the mind and keep the body in exercise; and then I found a corresponding good attend the superior patient as well as the others."

" Have you any doubt that that practice which has been to

successful in your own establishment, might be as successfully adopted throughout the different public establishments?" " That is my idea; I do think so; I think they cannot be perfect without it; I can give a very strong case of a patient I had from St. Luke's: he was a man of opulence, sent there as a pauper, (and of course some other precluded from the advantages of the Institution,) he came to me afterwards as a gentleman with no increase of property: this man came to me a most miserable object from St. Luke's, after having been a twelvemonth, and discharged as incumble; he walked upon his toes; he could scarcely get from the coach to my house; the muscles of the legs were contracted; he exceedingly nasty, and he would have eaten his own flesh had he not been prevented; he tore it immediately as he came to me: I tried to put him into a room where he could do no mischief to himself or any one else, but took off every restraint; I found him within a few days somewhat more composed; some little time afterwards he became so bad again with respect to filth, that I was obliged to use some restraint, and have a man constantly to watch him; by attending to his bowels, and keeping him strongly exercised in the garden and in the fields, I found him gaining grength daily; within six weeks capable of playing bowls; and I sent him home perfectly restored in four months, where he carried on the business of a coach proprietor three years afterwards, and called upon me many times in his gig, and thanked me for my attention to him."

How melancholy to reflect that the poor clergyman described in the minutes of evidence on the York Asylum, was not placed under the care of Mr. Finch, or in an asylum of similar treatment; he would then probably have been restored to the blessings of intelligence and of life. Probably, we say, for we still protest against that empirical dogmatism which would pronounce an absolute à priori opinion on any case of mental malady.

But we hasten to give our readers a concise account of the remaining pamphlets whose title-pages are at the head of this Article. It is the design of the last of these to discuss the subject of legislative enactments, for the prevention and remedying of alleged and allowed abuses in lunatic establishments.

The practical hints of Mr. Tuke need not detain us long. The tract is sensible, and well written, and worthy the attention of those persons who are contemplating the erection or the alteration of houses for the insane.

"The defects, (Mr. Tuke says,) in the construction of asylums which I have had opportunity to observe, have defeated one or other of the following objects, which appear to be of primary importance to the welfare and comfort of lunatics. 1st, The complete separation of male and female patients. 2nd, The separation of patients in proper number and distinct apartments, according to

perintendence over the patients, by their attendants, and over both by their superior officers. 4th, That the accommodation for the patients should be cheerful, and afford as much opportunity for reluntary change of place and variety of scene, as is compatible with security."

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These several heads the Author enlarges and dwells upon with no small degree of characteristic simplicity and unaffected good sense. He proposes the following system of classification.

" 1st class, Those who are disposed to incoherent laughing and singing; and generally all those who are capable of very little retional enjoyment. 2d class, To consist of those who are capable of a considerable degree of rational enjoyment. In this class most of the melancholics and hypochondriacs will be included. Several of this class will be able to assist in the house or be engaged in some useful labour. 3rd class, The convalescents, and those patients whose derangement leaves them fully capable of common enjoyment. A few of the best meiancholics should also be admitted into this class."-We shall only add to our quotations from this tract the following important remarks -" The worst patients require most attention, and are most likely to irritate their attendants. A distinct or very remote building, exposes them to all the evils of neglect and abuse, and there is, generally speaking, more to fear for them than from them. The evils of noise are not so great as those of filth, starvation, and cruelty. I have no doubt, however, that it is possible so to construct rooms as to avoid the annoyance of the many, and the injury of the few."

The 'letter' of Mr. Bakewell is not without its merits, but his style and manner are too much tinctured with a sort of self-sufficiency and seemingly disappointed expectations. He proposes the establishment of 'National Hospitals for the cure of insanity alone; to admit none but recent cases, and to keep them only for a limited time;' the masters and servants to have liberal fees for every recovery, which fees should be entirely lost in cases of failure.' We should for ourselves apprehend, that this 'no cure no pay' system, would go far to exclude individuals of liberal education and enlightened minds, from undertaking the task of superintendence; and we feel quite sure that the poor sufferers would have so much less chance of benefit from medicine and management, as these qualifications should be wanting in the keepers of Madhouses.

It will not be worth while to follow Mr. Bakewell through his reasonings on the nature and essentials of insanity; we shall merely observe, that his practice appears, to say the least of it, quite as good as his theory; and, if we may trust to the correctness of his statements, his treatment is, on the whole, singularly successful. At the end of the pamphlet are several interesting, and somewhat instructive cases; last of which, with his own remarks upon it, we shall lay before our readers .- In the early part of a morning, before daylight, I was awoke by a loud knocking at the door; and upon going to the window, I saw by the light of the moon, a man upon his knees in very loud prayer that the Lord Jesus would send down his grace upon the master of that house and all his family. Convinced from his manner that he was mad, and conceiving that a Madhouse was the fittest place for him, I called to say that I would let him in; on his entrance he was for a time very collected, and gave me his relation as follows; "I have been from home several weeks; I have been to attend the last illness and death of my poor father; he left some little property behind him, and we had some very unpleasant disputes; I have, too, drunk hard, and the people said I was going mad; but bless the Lord, they were mistaken, for I was never so well in my life as now. Coming home upon one of the coaches, a voice came to me, and bid me go forth and preach the gospel of the Lord Jesus; I began to pray, and I got off at the village below, and have been praying for the dear souls of the people." "How came you up here?" I said. "Why the Lord Jesus directed me here, to be sure." "What! have you been some time with the Methodists, for I presume you are one?" "No, I never was with them in my life; I do not so much as know any Methodists; but if it please the Lord Jesus, I mean to join that holy people this very day; I shall find some of the preachers at Stone. In the strength of the Lord, I can do any thing: I can strike my arm through that fire; and I can strike my arm through your body." In about two minutes after this, his arms were properly secured in a straight waistcoat; on first seeing of which he expressed a wish to have it on, in order to convince us that the Lord Jesus would break his bonds asunder; and as soon as it was properly secured, he cried out-" Come, Lord Jesus, break my bonds asunder," accompanied with all the efforts in his power; but these not succeeding, he became calm again for a while. For two days, he was the most part visionary; but using all my efforts to remove his complaint, he seemed quite recovered on the fourth day, and appeared in his own natural character, viz. that of a bold profligate, with no more religion than the bird that bears his name (Swan.) I wish he had been a Methodist; for in that case I should have hope, that he would some time find grace enough to pay me my charge; but as it is, I have no hopes. I have often asserted that the visionary fervours of devotion, which have been stated as the

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cause of insanity, were frequently the first effects of it, and this is an instance. A contemporary writer on insanity, goes a little out of his way to stigmatize the Methodists as the frequent cause of insanity; and in walking with him through his own Hospital, which contained at that time about a hundred and fifty patients, he pointed out two old women, who were, he said, Methodists.'

On this case we shall leave the reader to make his own comments; and shall now dismiss the consideration of Mr. Bakewell's tract, by merely remarking, that we think some credit is due to him for his courage in crying down the common cant—for cant it is—that religion is so much the

occasion of madness.

The last in the list of the pamphlets under notice, is penned by no common hand. It contains in the first place a general sketch of the act of the 14th of his present Majesty, intituled " an act for regulating Madhouses," which is followed by in outline of the "Bill to repeal that act, and for making other provisions in lieu thereof," which passed through the House of Commons in the year 1814. The objections of the writer to this last bill are made against that part of it, in which it principally differs from the previous one, viz. to the mode of granting licences, and the powers given to the visiters. We do not perceive the validity of his objections respecting the application of new laws to establishments already existing, for such an enforcement would not, as in the case of apothecaries and attorneys, deprive the individuals to whom they should apply, of their means of sustenance; and, it should be recollected, that one of the prime objects which the framers of the new bill had in view, was to correct already existing abuses in lunatic establishments.

Nor does it appear to us, that the person to be licensed must be so hardly dealt with by the discretionary powers being vested in the hands of the commissioners, for independently of the circumstance of such commissioners being chosen from a liberal and respectable class of men, there would be very little apprehensions of sinister motives guiding their decision, inasmuch as the refusal of a licence, or impediments of any kind to the present licentiate's views and wishes, would not be the act merely of one individual. It would appear, however, as far as relates to the laws of visiting, to be a greater safeguard to the rights of the masters of houses, were the visiting magistrates in the county districts required to be at least four instead of two in number; and it would be perhaps, expedient, that two of these four should be selected from gentlemen resident in a part of the county distant from that in which the establishment existed; as too much care cannot be used to prevent the operation of local prejudices and party interests. It is to be recollected that both Commissioners and visiters, in case of their decisions being inconsistent with justice, are liable to be convicted of improper conduct, by the act giving to the aggrieved person a power of appeal.

With respect to the right of removal being in the hands of the visiters, we think, upon the whole, that this is calculated to have a salutary effect as an in terrorem preventive of abuses; and it is not likely that the censors in question would very readily take upon themselves the heavy responsibility of ordering the liberation of any individual, unless the proofs of sanity were of too marked a character to admit of indecision or doubt.

That clause in the Act, which requires the visiters of asylums to direct that one or more accessible pumps be placed in certain parts of the premises, we think liable to all the objections which the Author brings against it. We think too, that his charge of injustice is valid against that clause of the bill relating to payments of licenses for a part of the year however small. But our limits prevent us from pursuing the subject further, and we shall now bring the discussion to a close, by again stating, in a very few words, our general sentiments respecting the treatment of insanity, and on what has been already, and ought further to be done, towards meliorating the condition of the unhappy subjects of mental derangement.

It will have been gathered from what has been advanced in the course of these pages, that our dependence on medicine, merely, is exceedingly small. There is a want of tangible decision, if we may so express it, in the pathology of lunacy; and its treatment must, by consequence, be, at present at least, in a great measure empirical. If any medicinal agents deserve to be preferred to others in affections of the mind, they are, perhaps, purgatives; regularly and perseveringly administered, and the warm-bath. Our few short extracts afford sufficient evidence of what is to be done by air, exercise, cleanliness, classification of patients, duly regulated bodily and mental occupation, and lastly, assiduous endeavours on the part of the superintendents to excite new trains of thought, and new habits and associations. It will have been remarked, that tu those establishments in which the above advantages were insared to the sufferers by the skill and humanity of the keepers, good was in the same proportion invariably effected.

In regard to legislative enactment, we really think that Mr. Rose's bill, a little modified, might effect all that is desirable to be done. There is, however, in our judgement, a Vol. V. N. S.

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loud call for County Establishments. These ought not to be optional, but compulsory, and each county should bear its own expenditure. The erections ought not to be suffered, until a plan of the building, its situation, and dimensions, shall have been presented to, and approved of, by the commissioners of lunatie asylums. These buildings, when erected and occupied, should be subjected to precisely the same regulations and restrictions as the private asylums; and it would of course be desirable to avoid every expense that is not necessary to the comfort and well-being of the inmates of the respective houses, We may in conclusion express our belief, that a certain degree of reform must be the consequence of the investigation that has been excited, and of the regulations that are proposed; and although experience teaches us in cases of this kind not to expect perfection, yet we feel convinced that much and lasting good will be conferred upon the community, by the recent labours of the House of Commons to improve the condition of Madhouses in England.

### ERRATA IN THE LAST NUMBER.

Page 164, line 10 from bottom, for sublimity, read subtlety, 167, line 20, for literally, read liberally.

\*\* We are obliged by want of room, to defer several articles of Liuny Information, and other matter.

# ART. XI. SELECT LITERARY INFORMATION.

Gentlemen and Publishers who have works in the press, will oblige the Conductors of the ECLECTIC REVIEW, by sending Information (post paid) of the subject, extent, and probable price of such works ; which they may depend upon being communicated to the Public, if consistent with its plan.

In the press, An Essay on the Being of God, and his attributes of Infinite Power, Wisdom, and Goodness; stating and refuting the objections to his Wisdom and Goodness, from Reason and Revelation, and drawing the most useful practical inference from the whole subject: to which Burnett's First Prize of £1200 was adjudged, August 4th, 1815, to which is prefixed a Biographical Sketch of Mr. Burnett's Life: by W. L. Brown, D.D. Principal of Marischal College, Aberdeen.
The Travels of Col. Keating in Eu-

rope and Africa, are nearly ready for

The translation of Mad. de Genlis' new historical Novel, entitled Jane of France, will appear in a few days.

Also the Journal of a ten years Residence at Tripoli, in Africa, from the original correspondence in the possession of the family of the late Richard Tully, Esq. the British Consul, in a quarto volume.

The Poems of Milton, Thomson, Young, and a few other leading Authors, will shortly be published, with new embellishments from the designs of Mr.

Westall.

The Rev. Dr. Mc Leod, of New York, is about to publish in one volume Svo. a work entitled, The Life and Power of Godliness, described in a Series of Discourses on the nature, progress, evidences and perfection of true relition in man. It is proposed that an impression of the work be printed at the same time in Paisley, cotemporaneously with the American edition.

There is likewise about to be published at Paisley, in a small 12mo. volume, a work by the same author, entitled The Ecclesiastical Catechism; being a Series of Questions, relative to the Christian Church, stated and answered with Scripture Proofs; to which are appended Notes explanatory of the points in controversy with the Episcopalians and Independents.

The Rev. Mr. Cox, of Hackney, has been engaged for some time on an abridgement of the late Mr. Robinson's Scripture Characters, in one volume 12mo. for the use of young people and of schools, which is nearly ready.

A new edition, with considerable additions, is in a state of forwardness, of The Principles of Fluxions; by the Rev. W. Dealtry, B.D. F.R.S. and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge.

Mr. A. Piequot, author of the Ancient and Modern Geography, will shortly publish, in a small duodecimo volume, for the use of Schools, A New and Easy Introduction to French Grammar; designed as a First Step to that useful language.

In the press, and in a few days will be published, in octavo, price 2s. 6d. Moscow; a Poem, by Mrs. Henry Rolls, Authoress of Sacred Sketches,

&c.

In a few days will appear, a new edition of Diatessaron: or, the History of our Lord Jesus Christ, compiled from the four Gospels, according to the authorised English version; with brief notes, practical and explanatory: to which are prefixed, a Map of the Holy Land, and an Introduction. By the Rev. T. Thirlwall, M.A. In one wolumn, duelesing, for the profession. volume, duodecimo, for the use of Schools.

Mr. T. Williams is preparing for the press, An Essay on Religious Liberty, in which will be considered,-The Primitive Terms of Communion, the right of Private Judgement, the nature of Christ's Kingdom, and the horrid effects of intolerance.

In the press, to be speedily published, The City of the Plague, a dramatic Poem. By John Wilson, Author of

the Isle of Palms, &c.

Mr. Horace Twiss will soon publish, a Compendium of the Law of Parish Appeals, condensed into one volume, as a manual for the quarter sessions,

W. T. Brande, esq. has nearly ready to appear, a Descriptive Catalogue of the British Specimens deposited in the Geological Collection of the Royal In-

Results of Experience in the Art of Tuition, forming the basis of the system adopted by W. Johnstone, A.M. at the classical school, Blackheath Hill,

is preparing for the press.

Mr. R. Hills has in the press, Sketches in Flanders and Holland, comprising a Tour through the Low Countries, immediately subsequent to the battle of Waterloo, illustrated by thirty-six plates.

Mr. William Phillips has nearly

ready, in a duodecimo volu me, a Elementary Introduction to the Know. ledge of Mineralogy and of Minerals,

A History of the Kingdom of Hanover, and of the Family of Brunswick, in a quarto volume, with engravings, is

nearly ready to appear.

Mr. W. Salisbury has in the pren, Hints addressed to the Proprietors of Orchards, and Growers of Fruit ia general, illustrative of the injuries trees are subject to in the present mode of culture.

Mr. Robert Buchanan, of Glasgov, will soon publish a work on the history and construction of Steam Boats, illustrated by numerous engravings.

#### Art. XII. LIST OF WORKS RECENTLY PUBLISHED.

BIOGEAPHY.

Remains of William Reed, late of Thornbury; including Rambles in Ireland, with other Compositions in Prose, his Correspondence, and Poetical Productions. To which is prefixed, a Memoir of his Life; by the Rev. John Evans, Author of the Ponderer. 8vo. 10s. 6d.

Supplement to the Memoirs of Sir Joshua Reynolds. By J. Northcote, Esq. R.A. 4to. 158.

### CLASSICAL LITERATURE.

Euripidis Alcestis. Ad fidem manuac veterum editionum scriptorum emendavit, et annotationes instruxit 1. H. Monk, A.M. Coll. S.S. Trin. Socius, &c. Accedit Georgii Buchanani Versio Metrica, Svo. 6s. 6d.

### EDUCATION.

D. Junii Juvenalis Satiræ Expurgata. &c. With English Notes, for the use of Schools. By the Rev. William Wilson, A.M. Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge, &c. 5s.

### FINE ARTS.

An Etching by Bromley from a whole length Portrait of H. G. the Duke of Wellington, painted by Sir Thomas Lawrence for the Prince Re-

Taylor's Egypt, illustrated by a Series of Plates, from Denon's drawings, royal folio, Parts 3 and 4. 5s. each.

### RISTORY.

A Narrative of the Demolition of the Monastery of Port Boyal des Champs;

including Biographical Memoirs of its later Inhabitants. By Mary Aune Schimmelpenninck, Author of Theory on the Classification of Beauty and Daformity; &c. crown 8vo. 7s. od. bds.

#### MEDICINE.

A Familiar Treatise on Rheumatism, and Rheumatic Affections, with domestic Methods of Cure. By William Hickman. 1s. 6d.

The Fifth Volume of the Medical Transactions of the Royal College of Physicians of London. 8vo. 12s. bds.

### MENSURATION.

A Treatise on Practical Mensuration, in eight parts. By A. Nesbit, 12mo,

### MISCELLANEOUS.

The Danger of Premature Interment, proved from many remarkable lastances of People who have recovered after being laid out for dead, and of others entombed alive, for want of being properly examined prior to Interment. Also a Description of the Manner the Ancient Egyptians and other Nations, preserved and venerated their Dead; and a curious Account of their Sepulchral ever-burning Lamps and Mausoleums. The pernicious Effects of burying in the Body of Churches, and confined Church-yards, pointed out, whereby many valuable Lives have been lost to the Public and their By Joseph Taylor, 12ma Friends. 4s. 6d. bds.

An Account of the First Edinburgh

Musical Festival, held between the 30th October and 5th November, 1815. To which is added, an Essay, containing some general Observations on Music, by George Farquhar Graham, Esq. 12mo. 7s. bds.

The Edinburgh Annual Register, for 1813. Containing the History of Europe for the Year; Reflections on Trial by Jury in Civil Causes in Scotland; Chronicle of Public Occurrences; Public Financial Accounts; Gazettes; State Papers; Births, Marriages, Deaths, and Promotions; New Publications; Miscellanies; Original Poetry; and Index. 11, 18, bds.

#### POETRY.

Prescience; or, the Secrets of Divination: a Poem. By Edward Smedley, Jun. Small 8vo. 7s. 6d.

Jonah; a Poem. By the same. 8vo.

The Story of Rimini; a Poem. By Leigh Hunt. Small 8vo. 6s. 6d.

The Siege of Corinth; a Poem.— Parisina; a Poem. By Lord Byron. 8vo. 5s. 6d.

Alcon Malanzore, a Moorish Tale. By the Hon. Mrs. Esme Steuart Erskine. 8ro, 8s.

Infancy; or the Economy of Nature, in the Progress of Human Life; a Poem. 800. 5s. 6d. sewed.

Gulzara, Princess of Persia; or the Virgin Queen. Collected from the origiaal Persian, 10s. 6d. bds.

### POLITICAL.

Proposals for an Economical and Seeure Currency; with Observations on the Profits of the Bank of England, as they regard the Public and the Proprietors of Bank Stock. By David Ricardo, Esq. 8vo. 4s. 6d.

Histoire de l'Origine des Progrès et de la Décadence des Diverses Factions, qui ont agité la France depuis 1789, jusqu'à l'Abdication de Napoleon. Par Joseph Lavallée, Ancien Capitaine d'Infanterie et Ancien Chef de Division à la Grande Chancellerie de la Legion d'Honneur. 3 vols, 8vo. 11. 7s.

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The Colonial Policy of Great Britain, considered with relation to her North American Provinces and West India Possessions; wherein the dangerous Tendency of American Composition is developed, and the Necessity of recom-

mencing a Colonial System on a vigorous and extensive Scale exhibited and defended; with Plans for the Promotion of Emigration, and Strictures on the Treaty of Ghent. By a British Traveller. 8vo. 8s. bds.

An Address to the Honourable House of Commons of Great Britain and Ireland, on the State of the Nation. By a Yorkshire Freeholder, 8vo. 1s.

An Argument on the Case of Marshal Ney, with reference to the 12th Article of the Convention of Paris, and the Treaty of the 20th Nov. 1813, in which the reasonings of Messrs. Dupin and Berryer (his Counsel) are considered. With an Appendix, containing their Argument as published by themselves, the Dispatch of the Duke of Wellington enclosing the Convention of Paris, and the Convention itself. By a Barrister, 8vo. 2s.

Paul's Letters to his Kinsfolk; being a Series of Letters from the Continent. 8vo. 12s.

Paris Revisited in 1815, by way of Brussels; including a Walk over the Field of Battle at Waterloo; concluding with Remarks on the Political Temper and Condition of France, and the Character of the Bourbon Government. By John Scott, Editor of the Champion, a Political and Literary Journal. 8vo, 12s,

Collections relative to Systematic Relief of the Poor, at different Periods, and in different Countries, with Observations on Charity,—its proper Objects and Conduct, and its influence on the Welfare of Nations. 8vo. 6s.

A translation of the celebrated Work of M. de Pradt, entitled the Congress of Vienna. 1 vol. 8vo. 10s. 6d. bds.

### SHIP BUILDING.

A Treatise on Dry Rot, in which are described the Nature and Causes of that Disease in Ships: with the Methods of Prevention and Cure. By Ambrose Bowden, of the Navy Office. 8s. bds.

### TREOLOGY.

An Examination of Mr. Dealtry's Review of Norris on the British and Foreign Bible Society; with Occasional Remarks on the Nature and Tendency of that Institution. By a Clergyman of the Diocese of London, 3s, 6d.

### CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a letter from Mr. Good relating to our review of his Translation of the Book of Job, which we insert without hesitation.

## To the Editor of the Eclectic Review.

Sir,—In your account of my "Translation of the Book of Job" inserted in your Review for last month, there are numerous errors of so gross and injurious a mature, as they have been pointed out to me by a friend, that I must request you to insert this letter in your next number in order to correct a few of them.

In p. 134 the writer of the article, after commending my arrangement of the poem, takes especial care to frustrate the value of his approbation by adding, "this judicious and natural division had already been suggested by Schulten and Grey; a circumstance which Mr. Good should not have neglected to record."—Now before the writer had ventured to inflict this castigation, he should have been certain of the truth of his charge. He should have read the works he refers to: had he done so, he would have found that his charge is utterly groundless, and consequently his castigation uncalled for, since no two divisions

can be more unlike than the divisions here brought into comparison.

The division of Grey is that of Schnitens, and the division of both is that of the Bible; for they have no other breaks than those of the ordinary chapters. Schultens, indeed, has given a few hints upon the structure of the poem in his prefixed commentary; and Grey has copied that part of his commentary which contains them. In the course of these hints, all we meet with is, that Schulteni conceived the middle part of this ancient production to be poetic, and of a dramatic cast, but its beginning and ending to be prosaic, and added afterwards. Yet he is uncertain whether the dramatic part should end with ch. xli. or at ch. xli. 7. Having reached in his commentary, which examines chapter after chapter, the close of ch. xiv. " here, says he, the first round of discussions having terminated, Eliphaz takes occasion to thunder forth severely, &c."\* and, arriving at ch. xxxii. he tells us that the reply of Elihu, which begins with it, follows up the battle, " as though with, a THIRD ACT." And beyond these few and indistinct intimations, we have not a word of any kind with respect to arrangement. Extending, however, the views of Mr. Schultens as widely as a light so glimmering will allow us, we may conjecture that, after lopping off the opening and closing of the poem as adsistitious matter, he regarded the body of the work as consisting of a DRAWA of three acls: the first extending from the beginning of ch. iii. to a part of the poem not pointed out, but probably conceived to close with this single chapter; the second, wherever he supposed it to begin, terminating with ch. xiv; and the third extending from ch. xv. to the end of ch. xli. or to ch. xlii. 7. which Mr. Schultens leaves equally uncertain.

In direct opposition to this hypothesis, I have ventured to submit that the poem, instead of being a drama, is a regular epic; instead of being partly genuine and partly adsistitious, is wholly genuine; and, instead of consisting of THREE ACTS, is composed of SIX BOOKS; not one of which runs parallel with either of these three acts, excepting possibly book III. with act II.; while even this parallellism is uncertain, because, as already observed, Mr. Schultens has himself left it uncertain where he conceived his second act to commence. Perhaps no two hypotheses more incongruous or at variance with each other ever existed. Yet the reviewer boldly tells the public that the last was suggested by the first; and then adds that this is "a circumstance which Mr. Good should should not have neglected to record!!" What would every other critic have said if, with equal boldness, I had escaped from this charge of neglect, by appealing, with equal ignorance or error, to the opinion of Schultens as the

foundation of my own arrangement?

In p. 138 the reviewer affirms, with the same unlucky looseness of reading, that I consider Job xiv. 10—15 " demonstrative of the doctrine of a future state." I have considered no such thing; but I have considered and affirmed that such a doctrine was known and admitted at the time in question, and that the passage adverted to is " demonstrative of the existence of the doctrine of a future state."

<sup>\*</sup> Hinc, orbe primo certaminum evoluto, ansa ministrata Eliphazo—detonania. &c. p. 13.
† Pugnam vehementissime depugnatam excipit, tertio veluti acrv. p. 14.

and not " of the truth of the doctrine," as this strange misquotation necessarily

imports. With inaccuracies of the same or of a similar kind the article abounds, Having quoted a passage from the notes, in which I point out under what circumstances the Hebrew 1 may become an imperfect negative, and in what cases an imperfect negative may, in all languages, take the place of a full negative, and have its imperfection supplied by being made the connecting medium of two opposite propositions, the writer, in page 139 observes as follows. " In support of this canon we have three examples in English, and one in Latine but not a single instance of such usage is produced from the Hebrew scriptures in its confirmation." Now the whole of the note here referred to, is a comment apon a direct instance of such usage; and till this writer shall venture to controvert the canon here laid down, which he has not done, one direct instance will be of itself a sufficient confirmation, and as good as a hundred. It was not, indeed, felt necessary to load the note with other examples; for the rule being laid down, its application was supposed easy. As the critic, however, seems to wish for further proofs, and admits himself to be incapable of tracing out other examples, let him turn to Eccles. i. 4, and he will find one quite in point. The Royal Moralist opens the chapter with the impressive apophthegm " vanity of vanities-all is vanity!" which he immediately proceeds to support by exemplifying that every thing in nature is transient and unstable; deducing his instances from the passing generations of mankind, and the earth they dwell upon; from the restless journeyings of the sun; the changeableness of the winds; the perpetual current of the rivers; and the ebbing and flowing of the sea. A more apt or congruous assemblage of images cannot be put together. But, unfortunately, from understanding the particle q in an affirmative or conditional, instead of in a half-negative sense; in that of et or sed, instead of in that of nee, (the other half negation being supplied by the contrast of the verbs pass away

far as I have examined them. The original is as follows;

והארצ לעולם עמרת:.

and come with the verb abide for ever) the aptness and congruity, and consequently the beauty of the passage has been destroyed by every previous translation, as

Literally,

ph

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Generation cometh, and generation passeth away;

Non doth the earth abide for ever.

Thus rendered, the passage is clear and true to itself; and furnishes a singular parallelism with the well known lines in Shakespear,

The great globe itself, Yea all which it inherits, shall dissolve.

The common rendering, however, is as follows; equally adverse to the sense and beauty of the passage; "one generation passeth away, and another cometh, but the earth abideth for ever."

I have not time, nor have you space, for other examples; since it would be useless to point them out without explaining them. But I will, nevertheless, furnish you with more publicly, or the writer privately, upon the expression of such wish. For the same reason I avoid pointing out more mistakes in the article before us. I cannot, however, help thinking it a pity that, after waiting upwards of three years for a proper person to undertake the task of reviewing my Translation, you should at last have fallen into the hands of so incompetent a judge. The man who would translate or criticize the book of Job, ought to be well acquainted with both Hebrew and Arabic; and the man who would review the translation in question, with its explanatory Notes, ought also to be acquainted with many other languages, as well modern as ancient. Yet the Present critic makes no pretension to any other tongues than English and Hebrew, while he gives evident proofs that he is but indifferently acquainted with the latter, and has not fairly studied the helps on which he has depended. It is, hence, not to be wondered at that the opinion he has put forth at the close of his account, far less modestly than magisterially, should, whether intended to recommend or discountenance the work (for it is of doubtful inter-Pretation) be utterly at variance with the reputation which every scholar knows, or may easily know, it has for a long time been fortunate enough to acquire, not only in our domestic universities, but in many of these on the continent, as well as among critics of the first character in British India and the American States.

Caroline Place, February 18, 1816. JOHN MASON GOOD.

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Having satisfied Mr. Good's request by the insertion of his letter, we shall now, in justice to ourselves, subjoin a very concise comment on its contents. The Reviewer of the article in question, who is altogether unacquainted with Mr. Good, disclaims every improper feeling towards that Geutleman. We pronounced Mr. Good's volume to be on the whole creditable to him; which opinion surely is not consistent with any attempt to disparage his reputation, an im-

putation which we repel from us.

Our remarks (E. R. p. 134) do not touch the question of hypothesis, but refer solely to the distribution of the matter of the book. On this point we lay before our Readers the following comparison. Schultens and Grey, in common with Mr. Good, regard the first two Chapters as constituting the exordium. "Part II. extends from the beginning of the third to the end of the fourteenth Chapter; and comprises the first colloquy, or series of argument." "Part III. comprises the second series of controversy, and extends from the fifteenth to the close of the twenty-first Chapter." "Part IV. comprises the third and last series of controversy, and reaches from the twenty-second to the close of the thirty-first Chapter." Part V. contains the summing up of the controversy; which is allotted to Eliha, Ch. xxxii." "Part VI. the Almighty appears to pronounce judgement, Ch. xxxviii." Good, Introd. Disser. pp. xxv. xxx. xxxiii. xxxvi. xxxix.

Now turn we to Grey, Liber Johi. Cap. xv.—" Hueusque primus orbis acrium certaminum—in hoc secundo orbe oppugnationis."—Cap. xxii.—"Tertius nume volvitur orbis disputationum." Cap. xxxii.—"Hic ergo tertius Libri. nostri actus quatuor decurrit sermonibus, ab arbitro quasi totius Controversiæ habitis, &c." Cap. xxxviii.—"Ultimus hicce actus exhibet geminam apparitionem—hæc lie et contentio ita finitur, quem admodum par erat; atque Homo pius—ad officiam plac de reducitur." These are the passages on which we founded our remark that the arrangement of the matter of the book of Job in Mr. Good's work was suggested by Schultens and Grey. Of the probability docti judicent. In Mr. Good's letter,

these passages are completely passed over.

Every fair Render of our work, we feel convinced, must have perceived that our words in p. 138, have reference to the existence or non-existence of the doctrine of the resurrection and a future life in the mind of the speaker, as developed in the passage Ch xiv. 10—15. Why should Mr. Good charge upon us 'looseness of reading' in the matter of the paragraph in our work, p. 138, when he himself exhibits the same kind of language in p. lxxx.?—where he remarks that the passages opposed to the opinion that the doctrine of a future life was known to Job, cannot strictly be said to annihilate the doctrine of a resurrection.

We have to the appreciation of our Readers the observations of Mr. Good in support of his canon that the Hebrew may, in certain cases, become an imperfect negative. We certainly do not consider Job ch. i. v. 5, as presenting a direct instance of such usage, and, as this is the only passage in the Hebrew Scriptures which appears as proof in Mr. Good's note on the verse, we could not admit his rule as an established canon. It was Mr. Good's business, not com,

to supply confirmation of his position.

It is unnecessary to notice the concluding part of Mr. Good's letter. The Reviewer will only say that he does make pretensions to other languages than English and Hebrew; that whatever may be the measure of his Biblical learning, it would, could Mr. Good have had the benefit of it, have saved his book from many gross errors; and that his knowledge of Hebrew, such as it is, would effectedly preserve him from attributing non a mill-stone, to the same root as proposed constraints and as a pronoun singular.

In conclusion, the Reviewer asserts the accuracy and justice of his remarks; and with the qualified measure which he has already used, repeats his recommendation of Mr. Good's work, that it is creditable to him, and that the money of the Biblical Student will be well expended in its purchase.